THE

Monthly Museum:

OR,

DUBLIN LITERARY REPERTORY,

FOR OCTOBER, 1813,

History, Antiquities, Biography.

Augustus Frederick, Duke of Leinster, Marquis and Earl of Kildare and Offaley, Viscount Leinster of Taplow, and Baron of Offaley.

(WITH A PORTRAIT OF HIS GRACE.)

OUR Biography standing the foremost article in the commencement of our work, we looked carefully around for an object-point of honor that would at once dignify and adorn the first page of our Miscellany. We flatter ourselves that no where could be found a subject more appropriate to our purpose than that which we have chosen—a Memoir of Augustus Frederick, Duke of Leinster.

This young and promising Nobleman, emulating the steps of his venerable father, is fast rising to that acme of public estimation, which has, during a lapse of nine centuries, been the distinguished hereditary honor of the house of Fitzgerald. The Biographer, with unmixed delight, with peculiar felicity, traces the high honors of a noble line, venerable from antiquity and illustrious by descent.—In the eventful page of Irish History, what track can we pursue, without meeting the footsteps of the mighty ancestors of this noble race? The asserters of freedom—the friends of order—and the supporters of legitimate authority, alike shine conspicuous among them.—From the renowned Fitz-Otho, down to the late lamented Duke, the whole forms a bright tablet of honor, which the votary of virtue may justly consecrate an eternal monument in the temple of fame.

The honors of this house have beamed progressively on its descendants, from the 16th of Edward the Confessor, to the 7th of George III. We find (according to Lodge*), the following record:

CREATIONS.—Baron of Offaley in County of Kildare, originally by tenure; Earl of the town of Kildare, 14th May, 1316, 10th of Edward II. Earl of Offaley and and Marquess of Kildare, 3 March, 1761, 1st George III.; and Duke of Leinster, 16th November, 1766, 7th Geo. III.

* Peerage of Ireland, vol. I, p. 115.

In a memoir, confined within the prescribed limits of a monthly publication, it is impossible to trace regularly as could be wished, the illustrious ancestry of his Grace. We must therefore content ourselves, with putting the reader in possession of the origin of the noble house of Fitzgerald, as far as it may be traced from documents on which we can rely.*

"The family of Fitz-Gerald derives its origin from Otho, or (as the Earl of Plymouth's pedigree hath it) Other, a rich and powerful lord in the time of king Alfred, descended from the dukes of Tuscany, who from Florence (or Norway) passed to Hetruria in Normandy, and thence to England; where, and in Wales, they flourished, until Richard Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, their kinsman, engaged them to partake in his expedition to Ireland, in which Maurice Fitz-Gerald embarked, and was one of the especial conquerors of the kingdom.

Sir William Dugdale tells us, that the aforesaid Otho was a baron of England in the sixteenth year of king Edward the Confessor, and was father of Walter Fitz-Otho (or Fitz-Other) who at the general survey of that kingdom in 1078, was Castellan of Windsor, and appointed, by William the Conqueror, warden of the forests in Berkshire; being then possessed of two lordships in that county, three in Surry, three in Bucks, three in Dorsetshire, four in Middlesex, nine in Wiltshire, one in Somerset, and ten in the county of Southampton; all which Dominus Otherus his father held in the time of king Edward the Confessor."

The first settlement of the family in Ireland, was in the person of Maurice Fitzgerald, which is thus described by Lodge†.

"Maurice Fitz-Gerald the eldest son, (with Robert Fitz-Stephen his half-brother) came into Ireland Anno. 1168, being sent with ten knights, twenty esquires, and one hundred archers, before Richard Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, to assist Dermoid Mac-Murrough, king of Leinster, to regain his kingdom, from which he had been expelled by Roderick king of Connaught.—They landed at Wexford, and by reducing that place, opened a way for subjecting the kingdom to the crown of England; and Dermoid, in performance of his promise, gave them in fee that town, and two cantreds of land adjoining.—He was afterwards engaged in almost every battle with the Irish, until king Henry II. came over, and received the submission of their princes and chiefs; at whose departure he was appointed on Easter Monday, 1173, one of the assistants to Hugh de Lacie in the government, and slew O'Rorke prince of Meath, then in rebellion against the said Hugh de Lacie.—After this he returned into Wales, whence, in 1176, he was recalled by the earl of Pembroke; who in recompence of his services in accomplishing the reduction of the kingdom, confirmed to him divers lands in Leinster, amongst which was the barony or half cantred of Offaley (given him before by the king) and the castle of Wykenlooe, (now Wicklow) which castle the family was afterwards deprived of by William Fitz-Adelm, who craftily procured it from his sons in exchange for Fernes; where, although situate in the midst of the Irish, they rebuilt a strong castle, and maintained the possession of it, until Fitz-Adelm found a pretence to have it demolished."

Nor has this family been without its literary ornaments, and that too in the darker ages.

Gerald, the fourth earl, named

* See Lodge, vol. I. p. 55.—† p. 58.

the poet, from his talent in poetry; who being also a very learned man for that age, and well versed in the mathematicks, was consequently then looked upon, and by some called a magician, is mentioned by several ancient Irish writers.

Of his Grace's ever to-be-lamented father, it is impossible for Irishmen to speak in terms too highly. He was the patron and rewarder of literary merit—the benefactor of the poor—the friend of the industrious, and the great encourager of every useful and ingenious discovery. To his tenantry, he was a blessing—and sunk the name of landlord in that of friend. But this part of his Grace's character is so finely drawn by Mrs. Battier, in her beautiful Monody on his death, that we shall take the liberty of quoting it, together with the pathetic description of his funeral.

"Loved in all nations, by thy own adored,
Thy loss, illustrious Leinster, is deplored,
From the gilt palace and the royal dome,
Down to the rustic labourer's humble home;
There Leinster's agent, never chill'd with fear
The honest farmer for a backward year.
He own'd no wealth, devis'd upon the plan,
Of wringing anguish from his fellow man;
Ah no! his kindness blest the cottage hoard,
And crowned with peace, their unambitious board.
He seconded the speed, God gave their plough,
And bade contentment sit on Labour's brow;
They hail'd his visits like a wish'd-for shower,
And in his goodness only felt his power.
Oh then! what pen or pencil can impart
The keen sensations of each grateful heart!
That mournful morning when they came to pay
The last sad duties to his sleeping clay!
Deep, deep drawn agony each bosom wrung,
And Death's own silence sat on ev'ry tongue!
Instinctive order moved the countless mass,
And pity wept, to see her children pass;
One solemn grief o'erspread his native plains,
One mighty love was paid his dear remains.
Oh my loved country! in Fitzgerald's shroud,
Thy glory's wrapt as in a gather'd cloud.
Oh Burgh! Oh Leinster! how my beating heart,
Thro' at my breast its meaning to impart,
Farewell, Farewell, eternal freedom now,
Fills each large heart and crowns each patriot brow
Are the bright visions then for ever fled,
Is Erin spoil'd and all her heroes dead?
Shorn of her strength, alas! she now makes moan,
And like a widow sits and sighs alone.
While Erin's genius watchful to redeem,
From slander's flat, our once fair theme,
To his pure soul in Holy Vision came,
And while ascending from its mortal frame,
Seized on the sure, tho' mournful moment gives,
And moved by *Leinster*—our appeal to Heaven.

The subject of the present memoir was born the 21st of August, 1792. His Grace's mother was Lady Emilia Olivia St. George, daughter and sole heiress of Usher Lord St. George. He was only eleven years of age when his father died, which happened in the year 1803. A minor succeeding to such a title, estate and fortune, is not among the circumstances most beneficial to society. However, the greatest possible care was taken of his education; and as far as his past life has opened, and from all that we can presage of the future, every hope may be cherished of his supplying, as far as possible, the almost irremediable loss which society sustained by the death of his father.

The Duke of Leinster is learned and accomplished, far beyond his years. He inherits one great quality of his father, a love of literature and a patronization of men of genius—but it should be recollected that he received the rudiments of his education under the Rev. Dr. Gilbert Austen.

From Mr. Austen's seminary his Grace was removed to Eton—and from thence matriculated at Oxford.

His Grace last year, soon after his return to Dublin, entered into the ancient and honourable fraternity of Free Masons, and was installed Grand Master of the Order on the 24th June, 1813. He is now in the bloom of life, possessed of the highest honors and one of the finest estates in Ireland. With such a parental example before his eyes, who can limit the blessings which his benevolence may shed around him in every direction! what error of magnitude can make its way to the mind of one who has such a stock of family honor to defend?

"His father's merit holds him up to view,
"And shews him in the strongest point of
"light,
"To make his virtues, or his faults, con-
"spicuous."---*Addison's Cato.*

THE CHARTER OF LIBERTIES, OR MAGNA CHARTA,

GIVEN IN THE YEAR, 1255.

[The importance of this document must be obvious to every subject of a free Government like ours. We believe a translation so complete has never yet appeared in any periodical publication. It therefore carries with it its own apology for insertion.]

JOHN, by the grace of God, king of England, lord of Ireland, duke of Normandy and Aquitain, and earl of Anjou: to the archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, barons, justiciaries, foresters, sheriffs, governors, officers, and to all bailiffs, and others his faithful subjects greeting. Know ye, that we in the presence of God, and for the health of our soul, and the souls of our ancestors and heirs, to the honour of God and exaltation of holy church, and amendment of our kingdom, by the advice of our venerable fathers, Stephen, archbishop of Canterbury, primate of all England, and cardinal of the holy Roman church; Henry, archbishop of Dublin; William, bishop of London; Peter, of Winchester; Joscelin, of Bath and Glastonbury; Hugh, of Lincoln; Walter, of Worcester; William, of Coventry; Benedict, of Rochester, bishops; and master Pandulph, the pope's sub-deacon and servant, brother Aymeric, master of the Temple in England; and the noble persons William Marescall, earl of Pembroke; William, earl of Salisbury; William, earl of Warren; William, earl of Arundel; Alan de Galoway, constable of Scotland; Warin Fitz-Gerald, Peter Fitz-Herbert, Hubert de Burgh seneschal of Poictou, Hugo de Neville, Matthew Fitz-Herbert, Thomas Basset, Alan Basset, Philip de Albiny, Robert de Roppele, John Mariscall, John Fitz-Hugh, and others our liege men*, have in the first place granted to God, and by our present charter, confirmed for us and our heirs for ever,

I. That the church of England shall be free, and enjoy her whole rights and liberties inviolable.

II. We have also granted to all the freemen of our kingdom, for us and our heirs for ever, all the under-written liberties, to have and to hold, them and their heirs of us and our heirs.

III. If any of our earls, or barons, or others, who hold of us in chief by military service, shall die, and at the time of his death his heir is of full age, and owes a relief†, he shall have his inheri-

* Liege men, or subjects.

† Relief, or a certain value payable in money or otherwise, by an heir to him of whom he holds his lands, provided such heir be of age; this relief was sometimes very oppressive therefore ascertained by this charter. An heir under age was said to be in ward, i. e. the heirs of those who

tance by the ancient relief; that is to say, the heir or heirs of an earl, for a whole earl's barony, by a hundred pounds; the heir or heirs of a baron by a whole barony for a hundred marks, the heir or heirs of a knight for a whole knight's fee, by a hundred shillings at most; and he that oweth less shall give less, according to the ancient custom of fees.

IV. But if the heir of any such be under age, and shall be in ward when he comes of age, he shall have his inheritance without relief or fine.

V. VI. Relate to wardships and liveries, which are taken away by 12 Ch. II.

VII. Heirs shall be married according to their rank, so as before matrimony is contracted, those who are nearest to the heir be acquainted of it.

VIII. A widow, after the death of her husband, shall forthwith, and without any difficulty, have liberty to marry, and her inheritance, which her husband and she held at the day of his death: and she may remain in the capital messuage, or mansion-house, of her husband forty days after his death: within which term her dower shall be assign'd.

IX. No widow shall be forced by seizing her goods to marry, so long as she has a mind to live without a husband. But she shall give security, she shall not marry without our consent, if she holds of us; or without the consent of the lord of whom she holds, if she holds of another *.

X. Neither we nor our bailiffs shall seize any land or rent for any debt, so long as there are chattles of the debtor's upon the premises, sufficient to pay the debt. Nor shall the sureties of the debtors be distrained, so long as the principal debtor is sufficient for the payment of the debt.

XI. And if the principal debtor fail in the payment of the debt, not having wherewithal to discharge it, or will not discharge it when he is able, then the sureties shall answer the debt: and if they will,

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held of the king. This was abolished in king Charles the II.'s time. The lord of wards had the custody of the lands during the time of wardship.

* Tenures were anciently divided into the following: viz. Escuage, which was land held by the service of the shield, and by which the tenant was obliged to follow his lord into the wars at his own charge. Knights service and chivalry where lands were held of the king or mesne lord, to perform service in war, and which drew after it homage, escuage, wardship, &c. Burgage tenure, where land was holden of the lord of the borough, at a certain rent. Villainage, a base tenure of lands, whereby the tenant was bound to do all inferior villainous services commanded by the lord. Grand serjeantry, a tenure of lands by honorary services at the king's coronation, &c. And petit serjeantry, where lands were held of the king, to contribute yearly some small things towards his wars. Frankalmoigne, a tenure by which land is held by ecclesiastical persons in free and perpetual alms. And socage tenure, where lands are holden by tenants to plough the land of their lord, and do other services of husbandry at their own expence; but this hath been turned into an yearly rent, for all manner of services when it is called free socage. Of these general ancient tenures, knights service, chivalry, escuage, petit serjeantry, villainage, &c. are taken away by statute 12 Ch. II. The common tenures, at this day, are fee simple, which is an absolute tenure of lands, to a man and his heirs for ever. Fee tail, a limited fee to a person, and the heirs of his body begotten, &c. By the curtesy, where a man marries a woman seized of lands in fee simple, &c. and hath issue by her born alive, after her death he shall hold the land during life. In dower, where a widow holds for her life the third part of her husband's land, whereof he was seized in fee. For life and years, where lands are held by tenants for those terms, on rents reserved. And copyhold tenure, a holding for lives or in fee, at the will of the lord, according to the custom of the manor, under divers services, &c.

they shall have the lands and rents of the debtor, until they be satisfied for the debt which they paid for him, unless the principal debtor can shew himself acquitted thereof against the said sureties.

XII. If any one have borrowed any thing of the Jews, more or less, and dies before the debt be satisfied, there shall be no interest paid for that debt, so long as the heir is under age, of whomsoever he may hold, and if the debt falls into our hands, we will take only the chattel mentioned in the charter or instrument.

XIII. And if any one die indebted to the Jews, his wife shall have her dower, and pay nothing of that debt; and if the deceased left children under age, they shall have necessaries provided for them according to the tenement (or real estate) of the deceased, and out of the residue the debt shall be paid; saving however the service of the lords. In like manner let it be with the debts due to other persons than the Jews.

XIV. No scutage or aid shall be imposed in our kingdom, unless by the common council of our kingdom, except to redeem our person, or make our eldest son a knight, and once to marry our eldest daughter, and for this there shall only be paid a reasonable aid.

XV. In like manner it shall be concerning the aids of the city of London, and she shall have all her ancient liberties and free customs as well by land as by water.

XVI. Furthermore, we will and grant that all other cities and boroughs, and towns and ports, shall have all their liberties and free customs; and shall have the common council of the kingdom concerning the assessment of their aids, except in the three cases aforesaid.

XVII. And for the assessing of scutages we shall cause to be summoned the archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls and great barons of the realm singly by our letters.

XVIII. And furthermore, we will cause to be summoned in general by our sheriffs and bailiffs, all others who hold of us in *chief at a certain day, that is to say, forty days before their meeting at least, to a certain place; and in all letters of such summons we will declare the cause of the summons.

XIX. And summons being thus made, the business shall proceed on the day appointed, according to the advice of such as are present, although all that were summoned come not.

XX. We will not for the future grant to any one, that he may take aid of his own free tenants, unless to redeem his body; and to make his eldest son a knight, and once to marry his eldest daughter; and for this there shall only be paid a reasonable aid.

XXI. No man shall be distrained to perform more service for a knight's fee, or other free tenement, than is due from thence.

XXII. Common †pleas shall

* The lands of England were still represented in parliament.

† We are not to imagine that the parliaments in these times enjoyed so much power as the wittenagemots in the Saxon times, to whom lay all appeals from other courts; but William the I. not caring for this, "established a constant court in his own hall, made up of the officers of his palace, and they transacted the business, both criminal and civil, and likewise the matters of the revenues, and as they sat in the hall they were a court criminal, and when up stairs, a court of revenue; the civil pleas they heard in either court. These courts consisted of the *justiciarii*, that were in nature of precedent, and called *capitalis justiciarius totius Angliæ*: it was he who chiefly determined all pleas, and with him sat the chancellor, the treasurer, constable, marshal, senschal and the

not follow our court, but be holden in some certain place: tryals upon the writs of * *novel dessesin* and of *mort d'ancester*, and of † *darien presentment* shall be taken, but in their proper counties and after this manner: we, or (if we are out of the realm) our chief justiciary shall send two justiciaries through every county four times a year; who with the four knights chosen out of every shire, by the people, shall hold the said assizes in the county, on the day, and at the place appointed.

XXIII. And if any matters cannot be determined on the day appointed to hold the assizes in each county, so many of the knights and freeholders as have been at the assizes aforesaid, shall be appointed to decide them, as is necessary according as there is more or less business.

XXIV. A free-man shall not be amerced for a small fault; but according to the degree of the fault; and for a great crime in proportion to the heinousness of it; saving to him his contentment *; and after the same manner a merchant, saving to him his merchandize.

XXV. And a villain† shall be amerced‡ after the same manner, saving to him his §wainage, if he falls under our mercy; and none of the aforesaid amerciaments shall be ‖assessed but by the oath of honest men of the neighbourhood, county.

XXVI. Earls and barons shall not be amerced but by their peers, and according to the quality of the offence.

XXVII. No ecclesiastical person shall be amerced for his lay tenement, but according to the proportion aforesaid, and not according to the value of his ecclesiastical benefice.

XXVIII. Neither a town, nor any person shall be distrained to make bridges over rivers, unless that anciently and of right they are bound to do it, nor shall a river be imbanked but what was imbanked in the time of king Henry our grandfather.

XXIX. No sheriff, constable, coroners, or other our bailiffs, shall hold pleas of the crown.

XXX. All counties, hundreds, wapentakes and trethings, shall stand at the old ferm, without any encrease, except in our demesne lands.

XXXI. If any one that holds

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chamberlain. —— The justiciar of England's power was that which united the king's court under one head, and being so great an officer, he was dangerous to the government, and obnoxious to the baronage. Jeffry Paterson, made *justiciar totius regni*, and continued till 15 John, got so great a power, that he became uneasy to the crown; so that king John from his death swore he then began to be king of England, and though there were two justiciars afterward in his reign, they continued but for a short time; for Peter de Rocher was not long in his office, and being a Poitivin was not grateful to the English, and so to Hugo de Burgo, it is uncertain whether he was justiciar, or not. It plainly appears king John had a design to lay aside the power of the justiciar; and therefore he readily granted an article in the grand charter, that there should be residentiary justices, and that common pleas should not follow his court, but be held in some certain place. Whereupon a residentiary court was established at Westminster as a standing seat of justice; for the determination of such pleas as were merely civil, and belonged to the subjects between themselves, and thus began that court now called the common pleas." See hist. and pract. of the court of com. pleas.

* Writs to recover lands, rents, tenements, out of which a man is unjustly dissesed, or ought to be seised, and a stranger seizes them before him.

†. Law to recover a right to present to a church.

* Means of livelihood.

† A Bondman.

‡ Fined.

§ Appurtenances to his cart.

‖ Laid on.

of us a lay fee, dies, and the sheriff or our bailiff shew our letters patents of summons concerning the debt, due to us from the deceased; it shall be lawful for the sheriff, or our bailiff to *attach and register the chattels of the deceased found upon his lay fee, to the value of the debt, by the view of lawful men, so as nothing be removed until our whole debt be paid, and the rest shall be left to the executors to fulfil the will of the deceased; and if there be nothing due from him to us, all the chattels shall remain to the deceased, saving to his wife and children their reasonable share.

XXXII. If any free-man dies intestate (without will) his chattels shall be distributed by the hands of his nearest relations and friends by view of the church, saving to every one his debts which the deceased owed.

XXXIII. No constable or bailiff of ours shall take corn or other chattels of any man, unless he presently gives him money for it, or hath respite of payment from the seller, but if he be of the same town, he shall pay him within forty days.

XXXIV. No constable shall distrain any knight to give money for castle guard, if he himself will do it in his own person, or by another able man, in case he is hindred by any reasonable cause.

XXXV. And if we lead him, or send him into the army, he shall be free from castle guard, for the time he shall be in the army, by our command.

XXXVI. No sheriff or bailiff of ours, or any other, shall take horses or carts of any for carriage.

XXXVII. Neither we, nor our officers or others, shall take any man's timber for our castles, or other uses, unless by consent of owner of the timber.

XXXVIII. We will retain the lands of those that are convicted of felony but one year and a day, and then they shall be delivered to the lord of the fee.

XXXIX. All*wears for the time to come shall be destroyed in the rivers of Thames and Medway, and throughout all England except on the sea coast.

XL. The writ which is called †*præcipe*, for the future, shall not be granted to any one of any tenement, whereby a free-man may lose his cause.

XLI. There shall be one ‡measure of wine and one of ale, through our whole realm, and one measure of corn; that is to say, the London quarter; and one breadth of dyed cloth, and russets and haberjects, that is to say two ells within the list; and the weights shall be as the measures.

XLII. From henceforward nothing shall be given or taken for a writ of inquisition from him that desires an inquisition of life or limbs, but shall be granted gratis, and not denied.

(To be continued.)

* To seize or secure, attachment, a writ to do so.

* Wears are stanks or great dams in a river, fitted for taking any fish, or conveying the stream to a mill.

† The writ called *præcipe quod reddat*, from the first words in it, has several uses. It signifies in general an order from the king, or some court of justice, to put in possession one that complains of having been unjustly outed. Apparently several abuses had crept in on this article. Rapin.

‡ Notwithstanding this and the statute 22 Ch. II. in many places and counties there are different measures of corn and grain, and the bushel of one place is larger than in another; but the lawfulness of it is not well to be accounted for, since custom or prescription is not allowed to be good against a statute. Jacob.

LIFE OF GENERAL MOREAU,

Carefully selected and arranged for the Monthly Museum.

GENERAL Moreau was born at Morlaix, in Lower Britanny, in the year 1761. His father was an eminent advocate, who possessed the esteem of all ranks until the commencement of the revolution. Revolutions always carry in their train the subversion of affairs in private life, as well those of the state in which they happen. This worthy advocate, who had long enjoyed public favor, now felt the reverse of fortune, and laid down his life when condemned for crimes which humanity would call virtues. In a word, when some emigrants fled from the horrors of proscription, he in their absence conducted the management of their affairs.—This was his crime, and for this he suffered; and as he was honoured when living, so he was lamented when dead. At an early age, the subject of our memoir evinced a strong partiality for a military life; and his father deemed it his duty to check this inclination in its first bent. It was, however, not to be retarded; he twice enlisted in regiments of the line; his military genius only required a field to show itself, and this field was shortly opened to his ambition, which soon was to blaze forth in transcendent lustre. The time was not yet arrived. Persuaded by the importunities of his father, he quitted the army, and submitted to the study of the law at Rennes. Here he soon became Prevot de Droit, or head of the Students of Law. In this place law was only a secondary object; he did not fail to cultivate his darling science. In a revolutionary government, such talents as his never fail to receive a due reward. He was called the General of the Parliament, because in 1788 he headed the law students and parliamentarians, against the innovations in the Magistracy, as schemed by the Minister Cardinal de Brienne. In consequence of this opposition, Count de Bissy was instructed to carry the Ministers plans into effect, and to take Moreau alive. He however appeared in public daily; but was so much on his guard, that de Bissy found it impossible to arrest him.

In the same year M. Neckar, succeeded de Brienne; he was the favourite of the people, and therefore a patron fit for the democratic principles of Moreau, who espoused his cause against Britanny, and headed the troops of Nantz, to enforce a general convocation of the States. In the winter of this year, the Parliament and people of Britanny, consented to the election of three deputies, to inspect the register of their deliberations. Moreau was chosen one of these; and in this situation he proved himself equally great in matters of diplomatic and military nature. When the registers were delivered for inspection, he in a short speech said, that his friends knew the honor of the persons with whom they were now dealing, and therefore had every reliance on that honor; that they armed not in rebellion, but in a just cause; that they loved liberty and wholesome regulations, and now as they were inspired with good hopes, they would retire peaceably home to their occupations. By this moderation, he became adored by his friends, and esteemed by his enemies.

Hitherto Moreau omitted no opportunity for evincing his military skill; but one soon offered which fixed him in the determination of

renouncing the study of the law. In 1789 the National Guards were formed, and the command of a battalion was offered to Moreau. He now becomes a military character. It was in the winter of this year he received his command; in the May of 1790, his battalion was reviewed by General the Count de Bissy. This commander expressed the highest gratification at the admirable regularity and excellent discipline of Moreau's battalion; and assured him, "that few colonels, with their old corps, could have delighted him so much."—When Moreau returned from the review, he was heard to say: "the general has bestowed on me great honor; but if he lives, he shall see me commanding, not only the National Guards, but the army of the line." This prediction proved true, for in 1794, when de Bissy was guillotined, he had the command of part of Pichegru's army, in Flanders.

Although Moreau liked a republican government, yet he was far from countenancing the anarchy of the constitution in 1793; therefore it was, that he, and the army under his command, were the last to sanction the confusion of the times.—However he might have admired the motive of revolution, he surely disapproved of its violence; for he saw, that whilst the storm raged furiously, the sheltering places were swept away. His conduct in this point of view was courageous, generous and uninterested; for thereby he precluded all possible hopes of promotion; but courage, zeal and talents, will soon disarm envy, ignorance and fanaticism. Moreau was possessed of these virtues; and he levelled them against those vices. In 1793, Robespierre's Committee promoted him to the rank of General of Brigade.

On the 14th Sept. in the same year, he attacked the Prussian army, commanded by the Duke of Brunswick; but notwithstanding the excellence of his plan of attack, he was completely defeated. Here the abilities of the general was called into action; though defeated, he was not dispersed; tho' obliged to retreat, he did it with the talents of a military genius.—A good retreat is a better characteristic of an excellent commander, than a successful battle; for success does not always attend on the deserving.

In the autumn of this year, he became acquainted with Pichegru; and as this acquaintance sprung up in military soil, so it bore the fruit of military friendship. Now he began to appear as a sun rising on some new world; now it was that he became a general; hitherto he was but an officer. Pichegru, being appointed to the command of the army of the North in 1794, caused Moreau to be nominated to one of the divisions of that army. Here the subject of our memoir became one of the first general's of his æra; Menin, Ypres, Ostend and Nieuport, were among his successes, and added to the republic. The last of these places was garrisoned by Hanoverians; these, his generosity and true marshal nobility spared, in defiance to a decree of proscription, which this year passed, involving Englishmen and Hanoverians, in one common ruin with the proscribed French; and in so opposing this decree, the general exposed his own life to the fury of the Convention.

On the 26th August Sluys capitulated to the army under his command. This is among the greenest of his laurels; and it will still be verdant whilst military genius remains to appreciate military worth. Sluys is so situated, that the island of Cadsand was a necessary position, of which he made himself master; then, notwithstanding

hardships which before might have been thought insupportable, he annexed Sluys to the French Republic.

In this year Pichegru's indisposition compelled him to resign his command; but, at his recommendation, Moreau was appointed his successor. Though Pichegru's illness was short, some acquisitions were made in his absence which opened the road to brilliant and decisive victories. When that commander returned to his army he complimented Moreau in high terms, and gave him the command of his right wing; and now these two generals become co-partners in fame. By their united efforts Holland is conquered, and a peace concluded with Prussia.

On the ratification of this peace, Pichegru was appointed to command the armies on the Rhine and Moselle; whilst Moreau was nominated generalissimo of the North. In 1796 Pichegru, disgusted with the impolitic conduct of the Directory, resigned his command; and by his influence Moreau was appointed his successor, who accordingly opened the campaign. Here this great man excited the amazement of every rank; for he reaped the meed of victory in wilds where destruction was almost inevitable. Wurmser was forced in his camp, beaten under the cannon of Manheim, and the passage of the Rhine effected near Strasburg; the Archduke Charles was obliged to retreat, the armies on the Rhine, Moselle, Sambre, and Meuse were rendered effective, several German princes sued for peace, and Moreau's orders were obeyed to the gates of Munich. On the 11th of August the Archduke, having resolved to hazard another engagement, attacked the whole French line; the battle continued seventeen hours, when both armies mutually ceased, each believing itself beaten. In this engagement the French general's right wing was forced; but Dessaix overcame the Austrians in every point where he was engaged. The Archduke having considered it prudent, even had he been successful, to retreat, resolved now, imagining himself defeated, to fall back to Donouwert. Moreau, when he saw his enemy retiring, assumed a victorious posture, yet was not able to pursue.

When affairs wear a threatening aspect, deeds bordering on madness sometimes extricate us, though in our cooler moments we would hold such rashness in extreme culpability. Now it was that the Archduke formed one of the boldest projects that ever entered into the head of man; one which astonished and at the same time drew forth the plaudits of his foe. This was the defeat of Jourdan; whilst he was completing which, he kept Moreau in check with a small force under General La Tour. Soon as the republican chief heard of Jourdan's defeat, he immediately marched to his relief; but some advantages which were gained over him rendered his plan abortive; and though he now made some slight acquisitions, yet, by the reverse of fortune, all his victories were rendered useless; and notwithstanding that he drove the Austrians from Freysingen and its bridge, yet was he obliged to retreat, having granted a peace to the Elector Palatine. This retreat, so justly celebrated, proved of more advantage to France than all the victories of Buonaparte that year in Italy, though Dessaix's rere guard was engaged to its disadvantage. As Moreau passed the bridges he cut them down, until he arrived at Ulm; there having established his head-quarters, he surprised the pursuing General La Tour, and

the signal for attack was the signal for victory. The pursuing army would have been entirely destroyed were it not for the skill and gallantry of the Duke D'Enghein, and Prince of Condé, with a few French emigrants.

La Tour being now so circumstanced that the republican general had nothing to fear from him, the attention of Moreau was turned to Nauendorf and Petrarsh; he marched to meet them; he encountered and overthrew them. These, with many other advantages, induced him to begin his march. He accordingly proceeded to Fribourg where he encamped; from this place the Archduke Charles was obliged to retreat after an ineffectual contest. Soon after this affair he abandoned Brisgau, and took up advantageous positions at Schliengen; here now he determined to await the event of a battle with the Austrians. Though they were his superior in point of number, he attacked them on the 24th October; the battle was obstinate, but terminated to his advantage: and the next morning he was in possession of all the posts which he occupied prior to his retreat. After some successes in 1797, he beat his enemy from the banks of the Rhine, and pursued them for eight successive days.

Moreau was an enemy to the Jacobin tenets; Pichegru's sentiments concorded with his. On the 4th of September, 1797, three Jacobin members of the Directory effected a revolution, in which Pichegru was, without a trial, condemned to banishment. As the French crossed the Rhine, they took a packet which belonged to the Austrian General Klingen; in this vessel Moreau was surprised to find a letter implicating him, from Pichegru, addressed to the Directory, and written in such a manner that he must unavoidably come under the censure of the revolutionists. Piqued at this violation of the sacred ties of friendship, he immediately wrote to the Directory, and established all the charges against Pichegru. The wisest of mankind are sometimes the weakest; the strong the most feeble; this sufficiently proves the incapacity of human nature, to that degree of perfection which bids defiance to censure. Had he once reflected that this correspondence was taken on board an enemy's vessel, or had he once suspected that it might have been forged to suit political purposes, the life's-blood should have flowed from his heart before his hand should have signed his name in prejudice to his patron; but *nemo mortalium omnibus horis sapit.* In this year every army but Moreau's addressed the Directory; his was silent, and by this silence, he lost the favor of the royalists, and did not gain the confidence of the republicans.—Men whose lives and characters are untainted with avarice, and unbiassed by self-interest, are generally formidable in the councils of incorporated bodies; therefore it was that Moreau's silence was more particularly construed to his disadvantage. He loved a republican government, but was never guilty of one single act of cruelty in the subversion of royalty; such a man, therefore, necessarily became odious to a Directory, the members of which were of the opposite character: he was accordingly arrested, and forced to resign his command.

Whilst he was thus disgraced he lived in retired privacy, and employed himself in writing the history of his own campaigns. Buonaparte was now the favourite of the Directory, and the people; him Moreau requested to speak to

that Body in his favor. It is necessary here to state, that in the year of his famous retreat, Moreau sent a large army to the assistance of Buonaparte in Italy; to this reinforcement that general owed many of his successes. Such now was his gratitude, that he chose rather to let Moreau, his friend and benefactor, remain in disgrace, than to say one palliative word for him in the Directorial Council. Tho' our hero knew not how to seek an injury, yet he knew how to resent one; and an opportunity soon offered of gratifying his revenge for this ingratitude. In 1798 Buonaparte was employed in the Egyptian expedition; but, not returning so soon as he expected he should, Madame Buonaparte was reduced to such distress as forced her to pawn her jewels. I ask those who call themselves merciful, how would they have acted by the wife of an ungrateful man? Would the vengeance of such be like Moreau's? He heard of her distress, and he relieved it.

Moreau always held the good of his country dearer than his private interest, and every consideration must be sacrificed, to that grand primum mobile. Notwithstanding the brightness of his glories, they only served to lengthen the shade of malice. General Scherar, was a man entirely unfit to command; partially liked by the people; but by Moreau, deemed a plunderer and an ideot. Such was the man who led on the army against Austria in 1799, and Moreau was ordered to command under him; a sufficient evidence of the imbecility of the Directorial Council. Scherar's success and character seem to have been drawn parellel. At the battle of Verona, though Moreau's wing took 1500 prisoner's and 8 pieces of cannon, yet was his commander so completely beaten, that the hero's advantages were not tenable. Nor did his misfortunes stop here, (for his country's adversity, was always Moreau's misery) having advised Scherar to evacuate Tuscany and Naples for a time;—that General chose rather to draw supplies from the garrison of Piedmont, and hazard another attack on Verona, though the Austrians had received considerable reinforcements. The event was such as but too often results from temerity. On the 18th April, the Russians commanded by Suwarrow, joined the Austrians. Scherar now perceiving his own inadequacy, resigned the command to Moreau.—Had this General now received proper assistance, he doubtless would have achieved something brilliant, but he headed the army, not so much for the sake of gaining acquirements, as to render the acquisition of the allies as useless as possible. The defeat at Cassano rendered affairs in Italy very unfavourable to the French; but this misfortune is to be attributed to the lethargy of the Directory, as Moreau had but 35,000 men, in opposition to the immense allied army. Suwarrow, the Russian General, was in the first rank as a military chief; but he was unacquainted with the talents of Moreau. The French General was now retreating, when he perceived some injudicious movements of Suwarrow, of which he immediately availed himself. Therefore he sent Gen. Victor to strengthen the army of Naples, and formed plans for effecting a junction as occasion might require. M'Donald was now commanding in Naples, who as soon as he received orders, attacked the allies on the Trebbia; but he lost the battle, retreated, and was pursued by Suwarrow. Meantime Moreau was not idle; he attacked and beat the allies in another quar-

ter, raised the siege of Tortona, and forced them to retreat. Suwarrow was therefore obliged to give up the pursuit of M'Donald, and marched to meet Moreau; but he had retired within the Ligurian frontiers, and there bid him defiance. Notwithstanding this success of Moreau, Italy was conquered by the allies; but such was that General's situation, that he kept them in awe, and prevented further operations, though Suwarrow threatened the borders of France. Sieyes projected a new revolution in the Directory, and therefore superseded Moreau, by General Joubert, much his inferior. On his arrival at the army which was now greatly reinforced, he requested the ex-general to remain with him a few days; he not only consented, but promised to take an inferior command in case of a battle. The allies perceiving that the French meditated an attack, resolved to be the assailants themselves; on which a battle ensued. Early in the engagement Joubert was killed; Moreau instantly assumed the command, and at the end of the contest no advantage was gained on either side.

Moreau's services were always rewarded with the blackest ingratitude. He was disgusted at the schemes of the Directory, which tended but to enslave his country; therefore it was that he joined with Buonaparte to overthrow this form of Government. In the year 1800 he again took the command; and resolved to end the war with the capture of Vienna. In this campaign the whole circle of Suabia became under the dominion of the French; and the Cabinet of Vienna, kept in continual alarm, could not venture on sending supplies to Italy. To this circumstance, and to the auxiliaries received from General Moreau, Buonaparte owes the consequences of the battle of Marengo. Soon as Moreau heard of this victory, he immediately marched to cut off the retreat of the allies; and it was now that the Austrian Cabinet sued for an armistice.

In this year, Moreau reposed in the bowers of hymen, and shaded its altar with the laurels of glory. He had been married but three weeks, when the armistice was broken; he was therefore obliged to repair to his head-quarters. In the commencement of this campaign, the allies gained some advantages of a partial nature, which inflamed them so, that the Archduke John, immediately resolved on attacking the whole French army. This action took place on the 3d Dec. and proved almost ruinous to the affairs of Austria; Moreau defeated them in all quarters, took 100 pieces of cannon, and 18,000 prisoners. The battle was fought at Hohenlinden; the Austrians were obliged to sue for an armistice, which led to a general peace.

Spies had been dispersed through the camp of Moreau, who had some private conference with the Archduke John, and one with the Emperor; in which he agreed that Tuscany should still continue in the possession of the Austrian Archduke. He sent letters to this effect to Buonaparte and Talleyrand. The former from being Moreau's friend, was now from ambitious views become his enemy; the latter formerly courted his friendship, but now coincided in the interest of the Consul. A telegraphic dispatch was therefore immediately sent to Joseph Buonaparte, desiring him to sign the preliminaries of peace without delay; by which Austria renounced Tuscany. Thus was the war concluded; and with it, the military career of Moreau.

He now retired on an estate which

he purchased, where he lived in privacy. He was soon obliged to bid adieu to this retired comfort. He has been heard to say that he would prefer a democratic to a monarchial government; but, if an aristocracy should prevail, he would rather have a Bourbon than a Buonaparte. When the growing greatness of the present French ruler became conspicuous, a conspiracy was discovered which threatened demolition to the rising fabric—This conspiracy was headed by Pichegru, who was, in consequence tried, condemned, and strangled. Moreau was proved to be a partisan; and therefore he was obliged to undergo a trial; at the end of which nothing could be proved against him which amounted to more than indiscretion; and, for this offence, he was sentenced to two years imprisonment. However severe this sentence, which was certainly more than proportioned to the crime; and however virulent the opposing power might have been against him; certain it is that a commutation of punishment was procured in favour of voluntary banishment to America, by which he was bound never to return to France without permission. After his arrival on the Columbian shore, he walked in the more sequestered paths of life; until he was led by an evil star to plead the cause of Europe, and to sacrifice his existence to liberty before the walls of Dresden. Since the 2d of September, 1813,

"*Nox atra caput tristi circumvalet umbra.*"

As to the character of Moreau, let the reader ask himself, can he form an idea of spirit independent, talents aspiring, honour unsubdued, and patriotism invincible; if he can, he may conceive what Moreau was. In battle, courageous and active—after it, humane and moderate; beloved by his officers, and the idol of his soldiers. All that can be said against him is, that he "was ungrateful toward "his friend Pichegru, whom he "could not but esteem; but it "may be said, without fear of "contradiction, or charge of par-"tiality, that, with the *single* ex-"ception of Pichegru, Moreau "was the first, the ablest, and "the purest, of all the French "republican generals."

SKETCH OF ANCIENT KILMAINHAM,

Including an account of the Knights Templars, &c. settled there.

Among the beautiful environs of the city of Dublin, many places are of deep interest to the antiquarian; these spots that are most so, are marked by some religious or military relique; at Howth we explore the ruins of an antique nunnery, whilst the towers, where baronial pride reposed, are crumbling into decay; these places of ancient recognition, where no monument stands, are either wholly unknown, or serve to aggrandise the knowledge of a few. Among these is an outlet, where once the more placid virtues flourished, we allude to Kilmainham. In the year 1174, Richard, Earl of Strongbow, established a priory in this place for Knights Templars, these Knights belonged to the order of St. John of Jerusalem, in which year, or thereabouts, the order of Knights Templars and Hospitallers were confirmed. Hugh Tyrrel being enfeoffed by King Henry the IId. in a large tract of land South of the Liffey, he bestowed part thereof, known by the names of Chapel Izod and Kilmehanock, free from

every secular duty on the prior of this establishment, with all liberty, and free custom in wood and in open country, in meadow and pasture, in roads and paths, in water and mills, in pools and fisheries, &c. &c. &c. In 1235 a litigation, respecting some ecclesiastical patronages, between the Bishop of Meath and this priory, was determined in favor of the Knights Templars, by which certain emoluments were appropriated to the establishment. As we speak of emoluments it may not be unpleasant to the reader, nor irrelevant to our subject, to give some sketch of what property was in these times; in 1259, James Bernard being accused of felony, took santuary in this house, but received a pardon on paying a fine to a certain lord; on taking an inventory of his property, he was found to be possessed of effects to the value of two shillings sterling, and yearly landed estate of eighteen shillings. Even in ages subsequent to this, thirty acres of arable land at Goldenbridge, produced one pound ten shillings; twenty-two acres in another quarter, produced one pound two shillings; and an house in Thomas-street, two shillings. In the year 1284, on the morrow of All Souls, Nicholas Taaffe formally made a grant of his lands of Killergy, to this house, which deed was dated from Clontarf. Records now mention a long list of successive priors, whose chief acts were the recovery of lands, rightfully theirs, or receipts of gratuitous donations of estates. As a specimen of these transactions we exhibit the following:--In the year 1302, when William de Rosse was prior, the master of the order complained against Wodelocke, sheriff of the county of Dublin, for having seized of his property sixteen cows and two hundred and seventy-nine hoggrils; each of the cows which were worth half a marc, he sold for four shillings, and each of the hoggrils, though worth one shilling and sixpence, he sold for eight-pence.—The defendant in his answer said, he was enjoined by the Court of Exchequer to levy twenty marcs on the master, in which sum he was fined for not appearing with such forces and men at arms as he was assessed at the King's Council; the preceptor of Clontarf proved, that the said masters, by charters of the kings of England, were always free from that burden. The sheriff was accordingly cast in damages to the amount of £6 19s. 6d.

Another circumstance, of a nature curious to moderns, was the following:—In Ann. Dom. 1304, Richard de Kirby, prior, granted by deed, dated next Saturday after St. Patrick's feast, for certain causes concerning the good of the hospital, to John Warre ten marcs annually, until he should be provided with an ecclesiastical preferment, to the yearly value of eighteen marcs; Warre afterwards sued the prior for some arrears, and succeeded, though the defendant alleged that the deed was sealed with a private seal. Of all the religious orders none ever were more beneficial to society than the Knights Templars; their estates were however immense, as shall be told hereafter, and therefore they were liable to every imputation which the avarice of enemies could suggest. In the year 1307, Walter Ewias, otherwise De Aqua, succeeded to the government of the house; whilst he was prior, Edward the II. transmitted to John Wogan, then Justiciary of Ireland, an order passed on the Wednesday after the Epiphany, for the suppression of the Knights Templars in England, with directions for the exact execution of the same in Ireland. This man-

date came from too high an authority to be disobeyed; accordingly the Knights were every where arrested, and in two years afterwards a writ was issued for their safer custody in the Castle of Dublin; many of the Templars who had escaped the rigour of the former decree were now seized, and treated according to the King's pleasure.

Their oppresion was now so intolerable, that it became necessary to present a petition to the King on their behalf, and Henry de Tanet was the man in whose name the petition was sent; the King, though resolved on the destruction of this body, had not yet decreed it; he therefore allotted some manors for their support. If the Knights Templars did not now see themselves wallowing in their former affluence and luxury, they found themselves much recovered from their misery and despair. This was the utmost of their ambition, and they were now satisfied; but the great and powerful were too much their enemies to allow them to enjoy tranquillity. In the year 1312, on the morrow of St. Lucia, the moon appeared variously spotted, the simplicity of the times construed this appearance into an awful omen; but though this natural phænomenon neither influenced, nor was influenced by any sublunary affairs, yet it did happen on the day in which their fall was to be compleated. As we have now arrived at the subversion of one of the most innocent, most harmless, yet most beneficial to society of all religious orders, it is imperative on us in justice to antiquity and their memory, to relate the circumstances of their fall, which will be a sufficient proof, that among the imperfections of human institutes, virtues and vices are alike subject to be involved in ruin. Nothing could be better suited to the taste and spirit of romance, and nothing could be more congenial to religious enthusiasm, than the institution of the order of Knights Templars; the piety of their professors rendered them beloved in the Christian world, insomuch so, that in the course of a century they had become possessed of 9000 manors in Christendom; and when the destruction of their order was resolved on, they held 16,000 lordships. Philip, King of France, who was naturally avaricious and jealous of his prerogative, long looked on the rising greatness of this order with malignancy and envy. When such an exalted personage proved their foe, accusations were easily found against them, which did not fail to lessen them in the public estimation and finally to render them odious. They were accused of sorcery, idolatry, &c. &c. and these charges were accumulated to such a pile, as completely turned the course of popular esteem. To crush them totally Philip only wanted a pretext to act as a stimulus to his passion; this he soon procured, passed the accusations through his courts, and condemned the order, seized on their estates, appropriated their houses to other uses, and imprisoned themselves. When Edward II. of England, perceived the immense acquisitions which accrued to the crown of France from this persecution, he resolved on following the example, and therefore issued his proclamations for the seizure of all the Templars throughout his dominions. This was accordingly done, the Knights in Ireland were tried in Dublin before friar Richard Balybin, lecturer of the order of the Dominicans, friar Philip de Slane, and friar Hugh St. Leger.—Tho' the depositions against them were but weakly supported, they were condemned, and their lands

every secular duty on the prior of this establishment, with all liberty, and free custom in wood and in open country, in meadow and pasture, in roads and paths, in water and mills, in pools and fisheries, &c. &c. &c. In 1235 a litigation, respecting some ecclesiastical patronages, between the Bishop of Meath and this priory, was determined in favor of the Knights Templars, by which certain emoluments were appropriated to the establishment. As we speak of emoluments it may not be unpleasant to the reader, nor irrelevant to our subject, to give some sketch of what property was in these times; in 1259, James Bernard being accused of felony, took santuary in this house, but received a pardon on paying a fine to a certain lord; on taking an inventory of his property, he was found to be possessed of effects to the value of two shillings sterling, and yearly landed estate of eighteen shillings. Even in ages subsequent to this, thirty acres of arable land at Goldenbridge, produced one pound ten shillings; twenty-two acres in another quarter, produced one pound two shillings; and an house in Thomas-street, two shillings. In the year 1284, on the morrow of All Souls, Nicholas Taaffe formally made a grant of his lands of Killergy, to this house, which deed was dated from Clontarf. Records now mention a long list of successive priors, whose chief acts were the recovery of lands, rightfully theirs, or receipts of gratuitous donations of estates. As a specimen of these transactions we exhibit the following:—In the year 1302, when William de Rosse was prior, the master of the order complained against Wodelocke, sheriff of the county of Dublin, for having seized of his property sixteen cows and two hundred and seventy-nine hoggrils; each of the cows which were worth half a marc, he sold for four shillings, and each of the hoggrils, though worth one shilling and sixpence, he sold for eight-pence.—The defendant in his answer said, he was enjoined by the Court of Exchequer to levy twenty marcs on the master, in which sum he was fined for not appearing with such forces and men at arms as he was assessed at the King's Council; the preceptor of Clontarf proved, that the said masters, by charters of the kings of England, were always free from that burden. The sheriff was accordingly cast in damages to the amount of £6 19s. 6d.

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and possessions were bestowed on the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem. This grant was made by the Papal authority, and at once confirmed against them by the King. The Knights were sent to the monasteries to do penance for alleged offences, of which they were not guilty, with the allowance of four pence per day, two shillings per day to their grand master, but their servants were kept as they were prior to the dissolution of the body.

Kilmainham, now being the property of the Knights of St. John, became an house of hospitality, where guests were entertained, and travellers refreshed; but the sick poor were no longer on the establishment. In 1321, Roger Utlaugh, (being then prior) granted to master Walter de Tiverton a pension of £2 to do the business of the priory in any part of the kingdom. An accusation of heresy was produced against this prior in anno 1328; he was accordingly tried before the Bishop of Ossory, and others, and was not only honourably acquitted, but reinstated in all his possessions. Among the grants made by this prior was the following:—to Hammond de Lee, the office of park-keeper of Kilmainham, with a white loaf daily, a flaggon of the best ale, and one of the second kind, a dish of meat from the kitchen, and half a marc for shoes. But by far the most curious of all his grants, was that to master Walter Islip for life, viz. an entertainment for himself, or corrode, two armigers, a chamberlain, five boys and five horses, or if he did not wish to eat private, he was to sit on the right hand of the prior at his own table, to the end, that he might be better helped; at the feast of the Nativity he should have a gown, and some garments of the better cloth, in lieu thereof five marcs of silver, as he chose, &c. &c.* A lapse of time now occurred, and until the year 1343, no interesting event happened, but in that year Robert de Farthing and William de Chichester, having summoned a jury at Kilmainham, assumed to themselves jurisdiction, and condemned Gilbert de Gregory for the death of a certain unknown Englishman. He being a clerk, was not amenable to the sentence; but the seneschal, for this stretch of authority, was fined half a marc, but was afterwards pardoned.—In 1465, James Keating was made prior; he had been not well induced when he was cited to appear in the King's Bench, to answer for having assaulted, with a drawn sword, Sir Robert Dowdal, near Clontarf, on the feast of Pentecost. This was evaded, as it was not specified whether he was to attend in an English or Irish Court. Few individuals ever evinced a more untractable spirit than Keating; in the year 1474, whilst he was constable of the castle of Dublin, he fortified it against Henry Lord Grey, who then was deputy lieutenant of Ireland; besides many depredations at this time committed on the castle, the bridge was broken down. The interference of Parliament then became necessary, and it was enacted that he should repair the bridge according to a certain plan, before the ensuing Christmas, on penalty of losing his priory, &c. protection being granted him, the affair was compromised. In the December of 1482 he was stripped of his dignities, in consequence of his being convicted of selling part of the estates of the priory, making long leases of other parts, and pawning the jewels belonging to the hospital. The nomination of a successor, therefore, became necessary;

* See Archdall's Mon. Hib.

and Marmaduke Lomley, a gentleman of distinction, was accordingly appointed. Lomley instantly commenced his rout to take possession of his new dignity; but on his arrival at Clontarf, Keating, at the head of a body of armed men, attacked him, and obliged him to surrender all his instruments of election and confirmation, but at the same time invested him with the commandary of Kilsaran, in the county of Louth. This act of violence was not long reaching the King and the Grand Master; and shortly after Keating was excommunicated. The prior became so violently enraged at this last step, which his own turbulence had provoked, that he deprived Lomley of his commandery, of whom no account was ever afterwards heard. About this time the despicable Lambert Simnel pretending to the crown of England, found a zealous supporter in Keating, as well as a place of security in Kilmainham, which he held in forcible possession. At length Sir Richard Edgecombe was sent to Ireland to adjust certain matters; he expelled Keating, who thereby became an infamous outcast, and died in actual misery.

In 1494 Parliament passed an act, revoking all the deeds of Keating, in virtue of which, all leases and articles made by him were null and void, but the jewels were to be redeemed. It was also enacted, that the prior of this house should be an Englishman, to the effect that a free communication might be preserved with the Knights of the order in Britain.

In subsequent years, an act was passed for the Union of St. Catharine's with Kilmainham, some of the estates having been bestowed on Sir John Rawson.

Thus have we sketched a short detail of ancient Kilmainham, a place highly famed among the antiquities of Ireland—a place where virtue and vice seem alternately to have flourished and predominated. According to old accounts, the priory of Kilmainham was a beautiful structure, equalling in magnificence and architecture the first specimens of the age. The estates attached to the establishment were immense, and continued encreasing until the priory was dissolved, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when they mostly became the properties of private individuals.

CURSORY REMARKS

UPON

THE FRENCH ORDER OF BATTLE,

PARTICULARLY IN THE CAMPAIGNS OF BUONAPARTE.

[*From the Edinburgh Annual Register.*]

THE unparalleled success of the French arms under their present military ruler, has thrown a glare over the causes in which it originated, peculiarly unfavourable to cool investigation. To account for the overthrow of ancient states, for the annihilation, not only of whole armies, but of the entire military power of kingdoms in a single engagement, imagination demands causes adequate in importance and in splendour to these dazzling consequences, and naturally figures forth a demi-god at the head of an army of invincible

heroes. Were these victories, and the melancholy events which have followed them, matter of remote history, this romantic delusion would be of as little consequence as if its luminous yet delusive halo invested the brows of Cæsar or of Alexander; but our safety as a nation is unfortunately deeply implicated in the judgment which we may form of the French armies, the genius of their leader, and the causes of their success. One part of the spell flung around them has been fortunately dissipated by repeated practical experiment. No one for a moment is now tempted to doubt, that, man to man, and regiment to regiment, the French soldiers are, both in a moral and physical point of view, so decidedly inferior to the British, that the ancient romantic proportion of two to one has in some instances scarcely put them upon an equality. Still, however, another part of the charm hovers around us. The general is invested with a double portion of that merit which he formerly divided with his armies, and we now hear of nothing but the commanding genius of Buonaparte, which, supplying all deficiencies, making up for all disasters, conquering all obstacles, gathers victorious laurels on the very fields from which every other general, ancient and modern, must have retired with defeat and dishonour. With this is combined a fearful and inaccurate apprehension, or rather a superstitious terror, of some new discovered and irresistible system of tactics, devised and acted upon by this irresistible leader. Such opinions, were they generally entertained, would form a bad omen for a nation forced into collision, for all that they hold dear, with the very person of whose irresistible skill in arms such an ineffable idea is held forth. We are not however very apprehensive of this dispiriting creed becoming general among those whose opinion in such subjects is of most consequence,—among the victors of Alexandria, Maida, Vimiera, Talavera, Busaco and Barrosa. The doctrine of French invincibility requires no confutation among those who retreated with Moore, or are now advancing with Wellington; nor is it to them that, like the ancient pedant in presence of Alexander, we presume to read our lecture on the art of war. But we humbly dedicate our few and desultory observations on the French tactics in the field of battle, to every desponding statesman out of place, who seeks the character of wisdom by the presaging notes of a screech-owl, and to all those worthy common-council men and burgesses, throughout the united kingdoms, whose digestion is impaired by reflecting upon the military skill of Buonaparte. When we shall have stripped that skill of all exaggeration, enough will remain for reasonable apprehension, enough to recommend caution, and to discourage presumption on the part of his opponents; but, if our researches have been correct, his system will be found a simple one, neither implying any transcendant genius in the discoverer, nor necessarily conferring upon the general employing it, that decided superiority which has been falsely apprehended.

It is scarcely necessary to say, that our observations only respect the French principle of distributing their forces upon the day of battle. Other advantages, of a great and important nature, arise from the combination of the various corps of their invading armies, maintaining their *liaison*, or correspondence, by means of the *etat-majors*, or staff-establishments attached to every division, whose communica-

tion with each other, and with the head-quarters of the emperor, is preserved at all risks, and with a consummate degree of accuracy and address. Thus orders are circulated, and combined movements achieved in consequence of these orders, with the same ease and facility through various *corps-d'-armée*, occupying positions or moving upon lines of march an hundred leagues asunder, as in other services through a single brigade. It is unnecessary to notice the unity, firmness, and consistency which this regularity and facility of intelligence communicates to the whole plan of invasion. Another cause of success, which may be shortly noticed, is their attention to the commissariat and its dependencies. Every French general is qualified to provide for the subsistence of his army; every French soldier is accustomed to lighten the general's labour, by looking out for himself and his messmates; and it must be owned, that if the united efforts of the general and soldier prove unsuccessful, the latter can sustain hunger and privation with great patience and firmness. None of these considerations are embraced in our present inquiry; neither do we mean to investigate the still more powerful causes of success, which the French well name *les grands moyens*, which embrace *espionage*, bribery, political intrigue, and so forth. Our present subject is limited to the consideration of Buonaparte and his troops arrived on the field of battle, and preparing for conflict. To estimate the extent of his genius, it is necessary to see what discoveries he has made in his profession, what improvements upon those of his predecessors. This requires a momentary glance at the history of the art of war.

In ancient times, when missile weapons were neither frequent nor formidable, the natural arrangement of armies was into masses, which might best support the shock of closing with pikes or swords. Such was the Macedonian phalanx; and such, though more pliant and extended, and capable of subdivision, was the close array of the legions. Against those nations among whom archery was cultivated to a degree which enabled them to maintain a distant but constant and effectual discharge of arrows upon these solid bodies, this was the worst order of battle that could be imagined. Hence the success of the Parthians against the Romans. In the feudal armies, the archery of England maintained the same superiority over the solid array of the French and Scottish, which presented a fair and slow-moving mark to their arrows, and which its own weight prevented from avenging the injuries it sustained. The general introduction of fire-arms (a still more unerring and destructive species of missile) necessarily changed the order of battle from depth to extension, or from the mass to the line.

It was obvious, that, without some improvement upon the art, the long-extended line could not be easily moved without confusion; and before such improvement was discovered, armies acting on the defensive usually took up some position, which they neither did nor could attempt to alter, during a general engagement, without hazard of utter ruin. This ancient order may therefore be represented by a line without intervals; not that there were not actually intervals in the ancient order, but because it was not sub-divided for the purpose of facilitating motion. In like manner, we must be understood as speaking abstractedly and generally when we

talk of the line being stationary. The wings and centre were moved in retreat or advance according to the vicissitudes of battle; but it was without principle or combination, which are necessarily implied in a modern military movement. They advanced, if victorious, or retired, if discomfited; but they did not attempt such manœuvres for the purpose of achieving conquest or avoiding defeat.

The genius of Frederick of Prussia brought into practical use an improvement upon this order of battle, the effect of which, whether applied to attack or defence, was to give the general the power of changing his array, and executing such movements, even during the heat of action, as must be decisive of the event, unless the same activity, pliability of disposition, and military talent, were displayed to counteract his purpose, as he brought to its execution.—This grand step in the art military consisted in subdividing the long line into a number of brigades, each of which could be easily moved and manœuvred without the risk of confusion or interference. By this simple principle of subdivision, to which his troops and his officers were heedfully and regularly trained, the King of Prussia, instead of making his dispositions before the action, and then trusting the event to fortune and the valour of his troops, was enabled totally to change his arrangement in the very moment of advance, nay, even in the battle itself, and to gain such positions as must ensure the defeat of the enemy, who found themselves pressed probably on the very point, which, at the commencement of the action, was least menaced, and which was proportionally ill provided for defence. This is the guiding principle of the Prussian tactics, to facilitate which all their discipline tended, and which repeatedly gave Frederick conquest when employed against the most formidable armies; which, however brave, numerous, and skilful, did not possess the principle of activity thus maintained by the Prussians. In a word, the method of subdividing extensive lines with a view to facilitate their movements, the principles and machinery by which these subdivisions, and consequently the whole order of battle, can be accurately moved and reunited upon new ground, either in the former, or in any new relation, were brought to perfection, if not in a great measure invented, by Frederick the Second.

The Prussian tactics were transferred to France by the writings of Guibert; and although modified, as we shall presently see, to the circumstances of their own armies, do at present form the leading principle of all their movements. So little do those know of the modern art of war, who are daily exclaiming against the sluggish and heavy tactics of Frederick, as incompatible with, and supplanted by, the vivacious movements and new discoveries of the modern French school of war. The Austrians also adopted the new principle of movement; but unfortunately they had not genius enough to discover, that, like a mechanical power, it was capable of being applied in an endless variety of modes. They seem to have considered it as only applicable to the ancient order of an extended line, and to have overlooked the obvious consideration, that, having once divided the line of battle into moveable brigades, it became as easy to reduce it into a column of those brigades, as it is to form a regiment into a column of companies or half companies. About the year 1793, the Austrians

might have been able to engage Frederick upon somewhat resembling his usual application of the principle which he had invented; but they were unfortunately unprepared for the tactics of a new enemy, who applied the same principle in a manner suited to the nature and resources of their own armies.

The King of Prussia, whose troops were excellently disciplined, and whose numerical force was usually much inferior to that of his antagonist, applied his principle of manœuvre in the oblique order, inclining his line so as to turn his antagonist's flank. Thus his order, though moving obliquely, retained the ancient principle of extension, and continued to be a line, though not drawn parallel to that of his enemy. It suited his purpose well, but it did not apply equally to that of the armies of France. These wanted (at least at the commencement of the revolutionary war,) the skill and discipline which the Prussian regiments possessed, and they had the numerical superiority which the Prussian monarch wanted. It was, therefore, their object so to employ their armies, that they might derive the utmost advantage from that superiority, and encounter the least possible risque from their deficiency in practice and discipline. It was plain that the subdivisions of Frederick might not only be arranged in line, but that they might be placed behind each other in *reserve;* by which we do not mean the usual reserve used in all disciplined armies, which supports the troops in action, and is in fact very nearly engaged as soon as they,—but a substitution and succession of several strong divisions, or corps d' armée, placed at a considerable distance in the rear of each other, and none of which is brought into action until that in front of it has for a time sustained the heat of the contest, and, by doing so, exhausted the strength of the enemy. An army so placed may be termed an open column of divisions, each of which in turn either makes or sustains attack. In either case, their advantage over the extended order, so pertinaciously adhered to by the Austrian tacticians, is demonstrable.

In the case of attack, the numerical superiority and preponderating weight of a column impelled against an extended line, must undoubtedly break it. Now, an order of battle, consisting of a number of lines short in extension in proportion to the depth with which they are formed behind each other, is, upon the general and abstract view, an open column, moving on the principle, and possessing all the advantage and disadvantage, of that order. The leading division, supported as it is by those behind it, and acting *de fort en foible*, probably breaks the extended line of the enemy. It is true, that the manœuvre is a hazardous one, for the division which so penetrates an enemy's line is immediately exposed to a murderous cross-fire from the divided portions betwixt which it has passed, and whom the slightest alteration or inclination will place on both its flanks; and such a body, if unsupported, is almost certainly destroyed.*

* The French are also partial to the attack by brigades in column, which have, on their scale of action, the same effect, and are liable to the same disadvantages, as the formation of their general order of battle. Thus, at the battle of Vimiera, General Loison's brigade of 2500 men were thrown into confusion, and driven back with great slaughter, when their column was flanked by three or four hundred of the 50th regiment under Colonel Walker. Thus, also, the charging co-

It is here that their system of *reserve* enables the French to avail themselves of the numerical superiority of their whole army. If that first division is defeated, those who escape throw themselves into the rear of the reserve, for facilitating which the French regiments are often exercised in the manœuvre of rallying upon a new position after total dispersion; the second reserve advances to support or to revenge it, and advances perhaps at the moment when the enemy, having made a flank movement upon the first line, are themselves exposed to be flanked by the second. If the enemy, by reinforcements or obstinate valour, defeats the second reserve, a third advances to the charge, with all the advantage of fresh and unbroken strength, against a foe who has already undergone the loss, fatigue, and confusion of having sustained two desperate attacks. If the attack of the third reserve also is sustained, that of the fourth becomes irresistible, unless the system which exposes an extended line to the attacks of a concentrated succession of attacks, is in the mean time abandoned, and a similar concentration of force affords relief to the party attacked, and counteracts the movements of the French. But if, on the other hand, the centre of the army thus attacked be at length broken, while its wings, either by distance or by being themselves occupied, are prevented from closing to its relief, total defeat may be considered as unavoidable. Its ranks are broken, its flanks exposed, and flight alone can save any part of it. It is for this advantage that the French are willing to make any sacrifice of lives; for they well know that, if it be once attained, valour and discipline are alike unavailing, and the best troops are exposed to be destroyed by those of a very inferior description, if the officers of the latter know but how to avail themselves of the position they have gained.

Hitherto we have supposed the simple case of the French divisions attacking in succession a stationary line; but the advantage of their disposition is the same, if the enemy has either originally begun the attack or has become the assailant, and advanced in pursuit after sustaining and repelling the first charge of the French. In either case the attacking enemy has the disadvantage of encountering a succession of detached corps d' armée, each of which he finds drawn up in its own position, prepared with every advantage of freshness and good order to renew a combat, which his troops have sustained for the whole day. That we may not be accused of vague and theoretical reasoning, we will detail the incidents of the battle of Marengo, in which the Austrians were assailants, and where the French sustained the attack upon the principle, and solely by means of their numerous and powerful reserves.

Upon the 13th June, 1800, the Austrian General, Melas, having united his forces with those of General Otto, then in retreat before Buonaparte, judged himself able to commence offensive operations. He crossed the Bormida at daybreak to attack the French army under Buonaparte, which, as the

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lumn at Busaco suffered the most dreadful carnage. And this mode of resisting the French attack in column is said to have been particularly recommended by the late General Moore. The French, however, usually possess such superiority of numbers as renders them prodigal of the lives of their soldiers, for the certainty, or even the chance, of carrying an important point.

following detail shew, was disposed in different divisions in the rear of each other, yet each sufficient for a certain time to sustain the attack, and waste the forces of the assailants. Generals Gardanne and Victor, with two divisions of the vanguard, defended the village of Marengo from seven in the morning till about nine. Perceiving that the place must be carried by the Austrians, who advanced in columns, Gardanne defiled the greater part of his troops by an oblique movement, so as to flank them on their advance; but this manœuvre, as well as a charge of French cavalry on the advancing column, was in vain, and the position was stormed by the Austrians. A reserve under the command of Buonaparte now succoured the defeated vanguard; and this second division of the French army, united with the remains of the divisions of Gardanne and Victor, again awaited the attack of the victorious Austrians. The light troops of the Premier Consul were driven in upon his line; his line was charged by the Austrian cavalry; and the stand made by Lasnes, whose division supported that charge, was rendered ineffectual by the disorder of the centre, which gave way, and exposed Lasnes's flank. The French line then yielded ground in every direction. Buonaparte, not yet an emperor, endeavoured to execute some movements to flank the advancing Austrians, and offered to head the 72d brigade, which he ordered to the service; but his officers remonstrated on the exposure *tam chari capitis*, and it would seem the troops were unable or unwilling to execute so desperate a manœuvre under any meaner authority. The Consul then ordered a retreat by intervals upon the troops of a third reserve, that of General Monnier, whose division arrived to sustain his right wing. But although the French right wing by this timely aid not only sustained the attack of the enemy, but even recovered some of the ground they had lost in the morning, they found themselves obliged to abandon this advantage, in order that they might cover, and in their turn be protected by, the centre and left wing, which continued a retreat that gradually assumed the appearance of a route. The whole French line, including all the divisions which had been successively engaged, were now driven before the Austrians in the greatest disorder as far as San Juliano, a village considerably in the rear of that of Marengo, where the conflict had commenced. Thus far, therefore, the Austrians, after a heavy loss and a toilsome struggle, had been victorious over every division opposed to them, however supported or reinforced. But here the secret of Buonaparte's tactics may be remarked. In the front of San Juliano lay a fresh and untouched French army. It was their last reserve, under Dessaix, and was formed in two lines, their flanks sustained by battalions *en potence*, and by close columns of infantry, by a train of flying artillery on the right, and on the left by the French cavalry under Kellerman, which, repulsed in the beginning of the action, had been rallied on this point to renew the conflict. The position which they occupied was a species of defile, closed on one flank by a wood, on the other by a very extensive and thick plantation of vines. The retiring army of Buonaparte threw themselves, rather in flight than retreat, behind this new formidable protection. Had they not known that such was in their rear, it may be well doubted whether they would

not have been utterly broken and almost disbanded before they reached it. It was four, afternoon, when the Austrians, who had been engaged in combat from seven in the morning, came in front of this new and untouched division of the French army. They were instantly charged by Dessaix at the head of the ninth light brigade, while in that confusion which success, as well as defeat, always must occasion. Their progress was checked; and though Dessaix was slain and his followers repulsed, yet Buonaparte had obtained time to bring his battalions into order, and, uniting them with the reserve, he advanced as to a new battle. Even this charge of a new and fresh division the Austrians for a time sustained; but the confusion it occasioned among their fatigued and disordered ranks, gave an opportunity to Kellerman, who with his whole cavalry attacked their flank, and forced six battalions, whom the rapidity and fury of his movement had separated from the rest, to throw down their arms. The tide of the battle was then completely turned. The Austrians, hitherto successful in every point, but now totally unsupported, were routed and chased beyond the Bormida with immense loss; while the French, who the whole day had been beaten from position to position, being sustained by repeated reserves, were at last enabled to wrest victory out of the hands of an enemy too fatigued to hold it.

(To be continued.)

COLLECTANEA.

Antiquities.—The following is from the Milan Journal:—"The public were ignorant, until now, of the destination of a fine column found at Rome, near the arch of Septimus, in the Forum, as well as the date of its erection. The learned M. Aurelius Visconti is about to decypher and publish the inscription engraved upon the base of this column, which has afforded a certain date to this historical monument. The inscription makes known, that the column served to sustain a Doric statue, erected on the 1st of August, in the 608th year of the Christian Era, to the Emperor Phocas, by Smaragdus, patrician and exarch of Italy. The statue is not to be found; but the column and the cornice of the pedestal are of a more ancient date than A. D. 608: they may be traced back to the time of the Antonines. It was the custom, in the decline of the arts, to profit by the monuments which belonged to a more flourishing period. The arch of Constantine furnishes an example of this, so convincing, that there is no occasion to cite any other. M. Bianchi, who has been ordered by the Government to examine the most ancient monuments of Rome and of Italy, has measured this column exactly; it is 34 feet one inch high; and four feet five inches in diameter."

Parisian population.—The Parisian Register reports, for the year 1811, 21,168 births, and 15,772 deaths. The number of marriages was 4,534.

The Soto de Roma which Lord Wellington has accepted, is a large park celebrated in Spanish history; inclosed and improved by the Emperor, Charles V. remarkable for the fineness of its timber and luxuriancy of its vegetation, and for its being the only place where there are any pheasants in Spain. It is supposed that Charles V. turned them out there. There is only a small hunting house upon it, which was the retreat of Bernardo Wall, Minister of Spain, during the latter years of Ferdinand the VIth, and beginning of Charles the IIId's reign. It was granted to the Prince of the Peace, and if not injured by his rapacity, is a beautiful place.

Son of Toussaint L'Overture: Black Preacher.—At a meeting of the Association of Independent Ministers of Hampshire, Sept. 9, in the New Chapel, Portsea, the assembly was addressed by the son of Toussaint L'Overture, the former black Chief of St. Domingo—the young man has embraced Christianity with a degree of warmth proportionate to its importance.

Barbary Travellers.—Sadi Hadgi Hamet Ezzini, his son, and suite, lately arrived at Portsmouth in the Kennedy Castle transport, Sharpe, Master, from Tetuan, in Barbary, in which city this Nobleman holds the important and lucrative post of Comptroller or Director of the Customs. He is travelling for the purpose of initiating his son in the manners and customs of Europe, for which object he has visited nearly all the European Courts. He left the ship under a salute. The dresses of these novel visitors are in the Moorish stile, and are very splendid; the attendants are fine looking men. It is said that Sadi Hadgi Hamet Ezzini is a relative of the Emperor of Morocco.

Discovery and Calculation: Compound Interest versus intrinsic Value.—In digging the foundation of the new Theatre at Barnwell, lately, a valuable antique coin was found by one of the labourers, with a perfect impression of Queen Elizabeth, enriched with her titles as Queen of England, &c. date 1600. Had the coin at that time been put out to interest, it would now have amounted to the sum of £104,728, but may be purchased by antiquarians for a much less price.

Humanity and Bravery.—The following act of bravery and humanity, which, we are sorry to say, has but few parallels, is recorded of a French officer who was taken prisoner at the surrender of St. Sebastian:—While the contest was raging in its most furious and deadly form, the French officer saw an English one (belonging to the Royals) fall wounded to the ground, exposed to the fiercest fire of the artillery. The French officer's sympathy was excited, and rushing to the spot through all intervening obstacles, he placed the unfortunate gentleman on his back, and conveyed him safely to the hospital. Lord Wellington, with his accustomed regard for desert, has recommended him to the notice of Government.—A circumstance no less interesting, occurred about the same period. A Newfoundland dog was found by the side of his deceased master (another officer of the Royals,) three days after the engagement. On the approach of the French party employed to bury the dead, the faithful animal shewed considerable ferocity; but, being pacified at length, he permitted the corpse to be removed, and followed it to the grave. The impressive fact was communicated to General Rey, who instantly adopted the noble animal, and has brought him to England.

Singular Accident.—Lately the roof of a public-house at Hounslow was blown off by gunpowder, in rather a singular manner. A man who had visited the powder-mills in the vicinity, dishonestly filled his pockets with loose gunpowder, and afterwards visited the public-house in question. A few grains of the powder having been observed to drop from his pockets on the floor, some persons present, not aware of the quantity he had about him, waggishly set fire to the powder—an explosion immediately took place, and the roof of the house was blown into the air: fortunately, all the *dramatis personæ* escaped with their lives; some were, however, considerably hurt.

General Moreau.—A Solemn service was performed on Thursday morning in the Catholic Chapel, King-street, in honour of this great man. The Chapel was hung with black, and filled with a very large assemblage of genteel persons:—The Russian Ambassador and suite; the first Minister of Louis XVIII. Count D'Lecuse, and all the French Noblemen to Monsieur and the Prince of Condé. Mademoiselle Moreau was there, attended by her governess; she is about eight years old. Among the company present were also the Duchess of Devonshire, the Countess of Desborough, the Baroness de Stael, Lord Melbourne, the Hon. Mrs. G. Lamb, Mr. *F.* Foster, &c. &c.

Diving Boats substitute for Torpedo.—We understand a gentleman at Norwich has invented a *diving boat*, which by means of paddles he can propel under water at the rate of *three miles an hour*, and ascend and descend at pleasure. He had made a number of experiments, and has been three times *under the bottom of the Ramillies*, off New London. In the first attempt, after remaining under some time, he came to the top of the water for air, and as luck would have it, came up but a few feet from the stern of the Ramillies, and was observed by the sentinal on deck, who sung out "boat ahoy!"—immediately on hearing which, the boat descended without reply.—Seeing this, all hands were called to quarters, the cable cut, and the ship got under weigh with all possible dispatch, expecting every moment to be blown up by a torpedo. In the third attempt he came up directly under the Ramillies, and fastened himself and his boat to her keel, where he remained half an hour, and succeeded in perforating a hole through her copper, and while engaged in screwing a torpedo to her bottom, the screw broke and defeated his object, for that time.

Social Economy, and the Useful Arts.

NOTICES

OF RECENT INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS.

Patent granted to JOHN MORGAN, *of York-street, in the City of Dublin, M. D.; for a new power applicable to the propelling of vessels and boats of every description through the water, and also to the pumping of them.*

TO some convenient part on the vessels or boats, Mr. Morgan annexes one or more bars of wood, or other fit material, in such manner, as that one of the extremities of the bar shall be without the vessel; and the other of the extremities shall be within, or nearly so, and that each of the bars shall, by means of a joint, or other mechanical contrivance, of the nature of a hinge or horizontal cross axis, or other manner of suspension, at or near the inner extremity, be capable of being moved up and down, as to the outer extremity, in the manner of an arm or lever.

He next affixes to each of the outer extremities a block or buoy, and allows it to bear and float upon the external water, and thereby to produce a tendency to rise and fall, by the re-action of the waves, and of the respective weights or buoyancy of the blocks or buoys; or to afford either an absolute or a relative motion or change of situation in the blocks or buoys, by reason of the rolling or pitching, as well as of the rise and fall of the vessels or boats respectively, in or upon the subjacent and surrounding water, and the waves and swell thereof.

He then connects the bars, by means of arms or pinions, &c. to the ordinary and well-known apparatus for propelling the vessel, or for pumping or performing any other needful and suitable mechanical work, within the vessels. He accordingly, by means of such connection, and of the power so generated, propels the vessels, or pumps them, or performs needful and suitable mechanical work within.

Temporary Scaffold, by means of which the outside walls of houses may be repaired or beautified with equal safety, and at less expense than usual. By Mr. J. DAVIS, *of Catharine-st. Strand. The silver medal was voted to Mr.* DAVIS, *for this invention.*

THIS simple and effective contrivance consists of nothing more than a couple of planks; to which two others are nailed, forming a sort of trough or moveable scaffold, on which the workmen stand; which is suspended at any height at pleasure. Near the ends of this trough are two frames of wood, in which the trough or scaffold is fixed. In the top cross-pieces of these frames, two pullies are fitted, and round these the ropes by which the scaffold is suspended are passed; the ends of these ropes are made fast to two beams, or scaffold poles, which project out of the upper windows; or they may be fixed over the parapet, or by any other means, as it is thought proper. Two single pulley blocks are also suspended from these poles; and the rope, after passing under the pullies,

passes over the pullies in these two blocks, and the ropes or falls come down to the machine, and are made fast to any convenient part of it; therefore, by drawing these ropes, the workmen can, with the greatest ease, raise or depress the suspended scaffold to any place where it is wanted for work.

This answers for such purposes much better than a scaffold, and saves considerable expense.

It is twenty-six feet long, and cost about two pounds ten shillings; and when no longer wanted for this purpose, the timber is worth two pounds. A single machine may be made thirty-six feet long, and united to any length; and when not in use, may be folded up, and put by as a common ladder.

On this plan of a scaffold, there is no occasion to break up the pavement, or to give the least interruption to passengers in the street.

Mr. William Caslon's, *(Dorset-street, London,) for an improved Printing Type.*

THIS invention is thus described:—The face of the type is to be made of the usual thickness, and in the usual way, but the body, which is commonly made of such a thickness, or height, as to make the face part of the type of a proper height for printing, that is, about $\frac{7}{10}$ths of an inch, Mr. Caslon makes only $\frac{4}{10}$ths of an inch in height, and the front of the body he makes sloping, or bevelled upwards, from the outer side towards the face, as well as the opposite side or back, by which means the upper part of the body is about $\frac{1}{10}$th of an inch narrower than the under part of the same. The two sides, or those parts which come next to one another, when two or more are put side by side, are made quite upright or square, with the upper and lower part. It being necessary for the body part of all types to be raised to such a height or thickness, as to make the face of the proper height for printing, or about $\frac{7}{10}$ths of an inch, Mr. C. makes stands of various lengths, breadths and heights, according to the sized types they are to be used with, and of the following shape; that is, the front of the said stands are quite upright, but the top of them project inside; and the under part of the projecting part is made flat, only half the width of the bottom of the body, and of such a height from the bottom, as just to make the types of the proper height for printing. The way in which these stands are used, is to lay down two of them back to back, and to place the types upon them; and when they are closed, the bevelling or sloping parts of the types fit exactly into the bevelling or sloping parts of the stands, by which means the types are properly confined *of the proper height to paper*, as it is called, and as easily locked up in the chase as if they had been originally cast of the usual height, and in the usual way. The stands are to be made of any proper material, as iron or other metal, or of wood, but the types may be made of the usual composition. The body may be made of a different shape to that already described; that is to say, instead of having two sides upright, and the front and back sloping, all four sides may be made upright, and they may then, instead of being used with the stands, before described, be fixed by nails, or otherwise, upon blocks of wood of a proper width and height.—The types likewise, instead of making the upper parts of them only half the width of the body part of the type, may be made of the whole width, but with only one projecting part. The other projecting

Social Economy, and the Useful Arts.

NOTICES

OF RECENT INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS.

Patent granted to JOHN MORGAN, *of York-street, in the City of Dublin, M. D.; for a new power applicable to the propelling of vessels and boats of every description through the water, and also to the pumping of them.*

TO some convenient part on the vessels or boats, Mr. Morgan annexes one or more bars of wood, or other fit material, in such manner, as that one of the extremities of the bar shall be without the vessel; and the other of the extremities shall be within, or nearly so, and that each of the bars shall, by means of a joint, or other mechanical contrivance, of the nature of a hinge or horizontal cross axis, or other manner of suspension, at or near the inner extremity, be capable of being moved up and down, as to the outer extremity, in the manner of an arm or lever.

He next affixes to each of the outer extremities a block or buoy, and allows it to bear and float upon the external water, and thereby to produce a tendency to rise and fall, by the re-action of the waves, and of the respective weights or buoyancy of the blocks or buoys; or to afford either an absolute or a relative motion or change of situation in the blocks or buoys, by reason of the rolling or pitching, as well as of the rise and fall of the vessels or boats respectively, in or upon the subjacent and surrounding water, and the waves and swell thereof.

He then connects the bars, by means of arms or pinions, &c. to the ordinary and well-known apparatus for propelling the vessel, or for pumping or performing any other needful and suitable mechanical work, within the vessels. He accordingly, by means of such connection, and of the power so generated, propels the vessels, or pumps them, or performs needful and suitable mechanical work within.

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part in this case must be screwed on after the types are put on the stands.

The advantages attending these types, (says Mr. Caslon) are, that they only weigh about half that common types of the same size weigh; and from their size, they may be put away when not in use, in such a manner as to occupy only from one-third to one-seventh of the room that common types occupy.

Account of a Pyréolophory, invented by MM. NIEPCE.

IN seeking for a principle of motion, the action of which might be regulated and governed, MM. Niepce thought that they perceived it in that property which caloric possesses, of promptly dilating the atmospheric air, and their first attempts have afforded very important results.

They have been enabled by this medium to cause such strong commotions in a given space, that the effects appeared like those of a steam-engine.

The principal piece of this machine is a copper recipient, well closed on every side, into the centre of which a very brisk flame is suddenly introduced. The heat instantaneously dilates the mass of air contained in it; the interior sides experience a strong pressure from within and from without, and if an aperture be made in one side, and a piston that fits it be adapted to it, the piston will be repelled, and will be capable of raising a body of water, or any weight, in proportion to the expansion of the air in the recipient.

If, when the flame is extinguished, the air be renewed, in order to restore things to the former state, the piston will return to its place; and if a flame be again introduced into the centre of the recipient as before, the play of the machine will recommence, and may be always renewed in the same manner.

Preparation of the vegetable red, otherwise called Portugal or Spanish red.

THIS red is found in commerce in thin leaves, covered on one side with a fine bronze colour, which, when moistened with water, furnishes a beautiful rose colour, and may be used at the toilet as well as for silk, cotton, and linen. On the other side is inscribed, in red characters, *Color fina de Tiburcio Palacio á la Subida a San Martin, de Madrid.*

The same colour is sold in a liquid state by the name of *rouge a la goutte*, red drops; and in little earthen-ware cups, by the name of *rouge en assiettes* or *entasses*, red cups. The following is the method of preparing it.

A certain quantity of very fine bastard saffron (*carthamus tinctorius*) is put into a small linen bag, and kneaded with pure river or rain water, until it ceases to give a yellow colour to the water.

The saffron, thus deprived of its yellow colouring substance, is mixed with twelve times its weight (when dry) of pure rain water, and to this is added fifteen times its weight of crystallised carbonate of soda. When the whole is well mixed it is left at rest for two hours, and then the fluid is filtered through a piece of linen.

This fluid is yellow: some bits of cotton are put into it, and then some good citron juice is added, the whole being stirred at the same time. The bits of cotton by degrees become red, and at the end of twenty-four hours the fluid is deprived of all its red colouring matter.

The cotton thus dyed red is washed in fresh water until it no longer colours it. This operation renders

the red colour a little less lively, but it still remains very fine.

Afterwards the dyed cotton is put into a bath of twenty times the weight of water of the raw saffron first taken, and in which has been dissolved a quantity of carbonate of soda, equal to ten parts of the weight of the saffron. The cotton is kept in it for an hour, and kneaded well. The bath will in that time acquire a yellow colour; the cotton, on the contrary, will be of a pale rose colour, and this colour is improved by washing it in pure water.

The fluid part of the bath that remains when the cotton is taken out is mixed with citron juice until it acquires an acidulated taste. It soon becomes then a fine rose coloured liquid, which at the commencement is thrown out by fermentation on the surface of the fluid, but which, clarifying by degrees, precipitates a very fine red powder, which is separated from the fluid, and dried gradually upon plates of porcelain. This is the vegetable or Portugal red in a powder.

This powder, diluted with citron juice, forms the liquid red, or *rouge a la goutte*, and which, when spread with a brush on the inner surface of an earthen cup, and suffered to dry, is then what are called *rouge en assiettes*, or *entasse*.

When leaves of paper, in the shape of cards, are coloured with this red liquid, and it is suffered to dry on them, then it is called the *rouge au feuilles* (red cards,) mentioned at the beginning of this article. In order to give to these cards the yellowish green or bronze colour, they are exposed for a few weeks to the air, when the colour, which is called *le doré* (bronze,) appears of itself.

One thousand pounds of bastard saffron produce only five pounds of this red colouring substance; but this quantity goes a great way.

Method of preserving Asparagus for Winter.

THE asparagus for this purpose should be cut about Midsummer-day, carefully washed, and well dried with a linen-cloth, so that no sand or earth may be left upon it. This being done, some flour, perfectly dry, must be mixed with one-sixth part of salt, dried and pulverized; and with this mixture each head of asparagus must be separately sprinkled, observing that the end where it is cut must be entirely covered. The heads must then be tied up in bundles of about fifty each, according to their size, with bass, which does not cut like thread or pack-thread. Then these bundles must again be sprinkled with the salt and flour, and each be separately enveloped in a paste made of brown flour, which must be well kneaded, and rolled out to about the thickness of a knife.

These bundles, when completely enveloped in the paste, must be left in the sun to dry, with care that the paste does not give way in any part, and admit the air. They must afterwards be ranged in a small cask or stone jar, and melted fat be poured upon them. This vessel must be kept in a dry cellar; and in winter the asparagus may be taken out as it is wanted. When used, the heads must be soaked in water for an hour before they are cooked, and then treated in the same manner as when they are fresh cut in the spring. There will be scarcely any difference in the taste.

On the use of Magnesia in preventing the increased formation of the Uric Acid. By W. J. Brande, Esq. F. R. S. Prof. Chem. R. I.

Mr. Brande commences this paper by reminding the reader, that about three years ago he laid before the Society an article, which has since been published in the Philosophical Transactions, on the effects of magnesia in counteracting a predisposition to the formation of uric acid; since which time several opportunities of making trial of this earth have occurred to Sir Everard Home and himself. The opportunities have not been lost, and the administration has been attended with corroborating consequences. These results are now detailed in continuation of the former.—The first case is of a person who 27 years ago felt a pain in one kidney, which continued to increase for six months, and felt particularly aggravated when in the horizontal posture; a sympathetic pain in the testicles attended, as that in the kidney became more violent. These sensations occurred in paroxysms, which lasted from twelve to twenty-four hours; and were sometimes brought on by stooping, but frequently without any apparent cause. Warm applications, though attended by a temporary relief, were found to be debilitating. A medical friend, imagining that the complaint was induced by drinking cider, ordered that to be superseded by Holland and water; prescribing at the same time the lixivium of tartar to be taken in broth. This produced no sensible effect, except that of impairing the intestinal functions.

The disorder at length having stood for the space of nine months, the patient, after a walk from Hampstead to London, felt something pass from the kidney anteriorly downwards; and the passage of the urethra was choaked until the following evening, when a stone was extracted, which caused the stoppage. His physician recommended to his perusal a pamphlet on the stone and gravel, which recommended the use of alkalies.—He therefore continued the lixivium, but being obliged to attend to sedentary duties, the bilious and dispeptic symptoms encreased.—Without having any prescience of its virtue, magnesia was resorted to, and at the same time he had recourse to an increased degree of exercise, with the cold bath. In about a couple of months these medicines were laid aside, and health restored.*

Now alkalies are well known to be efficacious in gravelly complaints, and carbonates in acidity of the stomach. Magnesia is an alkaline earth combined with carbonic acid. In the case above mentioned, there unquestionably was an acid present in the stomach; on the introduction of the magnesia a decomposition took place; the carbonic acid was set at liberty, and the earth united with the acid. Perhaps this disengaged acid had some influence on the kidneys and urinary organs; but certainly the magnesia and the acid with which it combined were carried off by the functions. Now alkalies are the medicines on which we depend most for success in gravelly complaints; and we know that the process of absorption is universally excited in the animal economy. Might not therefore the magnesia, which is an alkaline earth, be by this process conveyed into the system, so as to influence the secretal powers of the kidneys? If these data be allowed, a very clear illustration of the powers of magnesia will follow.

* From this case it may be seen how closely allied are dyspepila and calculus.

A case now follows where dyspepsia was certainly a symptom of calculus. The symptoms were evident, but were put out of the confines of doubt by the voiding a calculus. For some time this patient continued to do well with the usual mode of treatment; but recurrence of the disease rendered it necessary to have recourse to magnesia; he was soon relieved, but continued in an indiscriminate use of it, which reinduced the symptoms; but on a subsequent regulation of the medicine, a cure was effected.

In the paper, when speaking of the recurrence of symptoms, Mr. Brande expressively mentions as one of them, a deposition of matter resembling sand, which on examination he found to be destitute of uric acid. Experience has taught us, that when the use of magnesia is persevered in, concretions are apt to be formed in the intestines. In this case we find the recurrence of symptoms to arise from a badly regulated use of the medicine. As in the one case it is necessary that its administration should be followed by a cathartic; so in the other might it not be prudent to subjoin a diuretic.

Mr. Brande has proved by satisfactory cases, the efficacy of acids succeeding the magnesia; cider, citric and carbonic acids are the best. Now therefore, he *a priori*, is induced to draw the following conclusions:—1st. Magnesia has succeeded where alcalies have failed, and may be persevered in with impunity, so long as there exists a tendency to the formation of uric acid. 2nd. That it, as well as the alkalies, is injurious when improperly continued. 3d. That mineral acids diminish or prevent the deposition of phosphates; but are apt to induce a return of the red gravel; and 4th. That vegetable acids, particularly the citric and tartaric are less liable to produce the last mentioned effects; and that carbonic acid is highly beneficial, where irritability prevents the exhibition of other remedies.

To the Editor of the Monthly Museum.

AGRICULTURE.

Sir,

On all other subjects men may be divided in their opinions and their taste, but agriculture excites a general interest—it is the natural occupation of *man*, and every individual who adds in the smallest degree to its improvement, should be considered as a benefactor to his country. To advance these improvements by liberal encouragement, is the duty of land-holders. To combat the obstinacy of *habit*, is an arduous, but an attainable task if properly pursued, that is experimentally and progressively; for improvement will be viewed as innovation, if forced too rapidly on the mind, and experience must be the result of repeated trials, or it becomes

"Abortive as the first born bloom of spring,
"Nipp'd by the lagging rear of winter's frost."

J. P.

A GENERAL ACCOUNT OF THE NATURE OF THE SOIL IN THE COUNTY OF DUBLIN.

Some years ago, the agricultural produce of this country, was not more than sufficient to support its own consumption, and many have their doubts of its doing that same; we looked to Great Britain as our chief source, whilst our own lands were wholly neglected, or but indifferently cultivated. The English looked on the inhabitants of this island, as an inactive race of people, more prone to wish for aggrandisement, than to exert themselves for acquirements, whilst they industriously, constant to their several employments, were amassing riches, and lived independent of each other. Time passed over with hasty strides, and at length the Irish husbandman turned his thoughts to domestic cultivation, the island of course assumed a fresh complexion, and the mossy acre mellowed on the luxuriant harvest, which turned so well to the husbandman's account, that he soon found it a trade worth pursuing, the profits amply compensating his labours, the losses so light as scarcely to stir the beam. Whilst such a spirit prevails, it is necessary to foster it—a spirit, inspiring the moral and religious character, with the most wholesome notions, and regulating the cautious plans of the politician. To assist the farmer, therefore, is our aim in these remarks, and if we do not interweave them with embellishments and novelty, so as to command a patronage, surely their truth alone will be sufficient to excite indulgence. But as our infant voice cannot yet be heard at a distance, we must content ourselves with speaking of what is to us more domestic; and if our neighbouring patrons will condescend to listen to our lispings, we beg them to remember that wisdom sometimes flows from the infant's tongue; we shall therefore confine our remarks to the county of Dublin.

Though this island has been justly famed for its fertility, yet it does not owe any part of that character to the natural excellence of the county of Dublin. The general prevailing soils of this county, are found on inspection to be loam or gravel; in some places, however, the ground is stoney, in others slatey, whilst rich earth is rarely found, and more rarely still do we meet with marshy or boggy situations*. To the north of the city about Malahide, Swords, Balruddery, Gormanstown, Naul, &c. the soil is clayish, and make no ebullition with spirits of vitriol; and on the chains of mountains, southward of the city, extending from near Rathcool almost to Bray, several meadows shine in glowing green, which produce much better milk and butter, than the more hampered inclosures in the environs. Having given a general outline of the soils, it is scarcely necessary to say, that where the most of these are mixed in a given portion, the best ground is discovered, but as land is seldom or never so mixed by nature, it becomes necessary to supply the deficiency by art. Therefore, it is, that we are obliged to have recourse to the process of manuring; and we always find the most abundant crops where this practice is carried to the greatest extent. As a manure, the city nuisances answer extremely well, but some caution is necessary to be used in their ap-

* To this latter circumstance must be attributed the wholesomeness of the air, which is consequently free from noxious mixtures.

plication, particularly of manure made of animal matter, as it is evident from the caustic nature of their ingredients*, that a certain degree of causticity remains in their composition, and therefore the roots of plants are easily paralysed by them. Experience, which such losses have taught us, warrants the lodging of manure for a certain time to ameliorate prior to its being called into use. But one of the most important articles of manure is marl. It is a slightly coherent earth, not ductile or viscid, easily diffusible in, and disunited by water, and by it reduced to a soft, loose, incoherent mass†, and makes an ebullition with acids. From the circumstance of its swelling and bursting in water, it necessarily proves an excellent manure for stiff and adhesive soils. In clayey land it is good as it diminishes tenacity; and by reason of its own coherent nature, it encreases the tenacity of light and sandy ground. From this circumstance, it is evident, that marl is most peculiarly adapted to a gravelly soil.

When this manure is applied, it immediately enters into a chemical action with the atmosphere; the result of which is the production of a calcareous nitre, which is so necessary to existence, that in the wilds of the new world, and also in other places remote from marine influence, nature has deposited her stores of this substance, to invigorate the animal and spaced foliage, on the vegetable races. By these properties this manure encreases the productive power of land four-fold, making it produce trefoil instead of quick grass, and wheat instead of rye.

Agriculturalists have reckoned four different sorts of marl, 1st, the shelly marl, this is particularly adapted to clayey ground, it becomes soon saturated with atmospheric air; in fact so much sooner than the other sorts, that it produces crops as abundant in the first, as in subsequent years—2d, clayey marl; this is calculated to sandy soils, but like clay, it is slow in producing fertility, and shows no symptoms of encreased crops, until about the third year—3d, slatey marl; this is more slow in all its operations, than the last mentioned, but holds longer and loosens the stiffest * clay—4th, sandy marl; this sort is much commoner with us, than it is in England; it is generally known by the name of lime stone sand, having some small tenacity; it is a most excellent manure, and never fails to raise the price of land where it is abundant.

(To be continued.)

* See Gepleu's journal, 17, 536.
† Netty's Nat. His. C. Dub. v. 2.

* To this last, the rotten lime stone properly belongs.

A VISIT TO THE PHILADELPHIA PRISON, &c.

[We have given immediate insertion to this article, compiled from an authentic American publication, under the most decided impression of its vast importance. It speaks volumes on the impolicy of our criminal laws. Happy should we feel ourselves in contributing, however remotely, to the abolition of a sanguinary code of legislation, useless and cruel to man, as it is offensive and disobedient to the Supreme Being.]

THE criminal laws of Pennsylvania, are established on so firm a foundation of lenity, as to abrogate the punishment of death for every crime except cool and deliberate murder. On the settlement of the country by William Penn, the charter from king Charles the II. strictly enjoined the establishment of the statute and common law of

the mother-country. This was ill relished by such a friend of the human race as Penn, the principles of whose sect demanded the compilation of a milder code of criminal laws. A system, which assigned the punishment of death, for deliberate murder only. This system met with little or no encouragement in England; and on the new code being transmitted to Queen Anne, was refused the royal approbation.

In this situation did affairs remain, until on framing of the new constitution of the state, in 1776, the legislature were directed *to proceed as soon as might be, to the reformation of the penal laws, and to invent punishments less sanguinary, and better proportioned to the various degrees of criminality.* In the year 1786, the foundation of this long-desired reform was at length laid by an act of the legislature. By this the punishment of death was restricted to murder, rape, and treason; while all other offences were directed to be punished with whipping, imprisonment, and hard labour. Unfortunately, however, for the cause of humanity, the system of mildness had not a fair trial. The number of convicts had in some degree diminished, but in a very trifling proportion.

An important defect, though not generally observed, appeared too plain to some of the promoters of the plan. This mitigated system was not attended by that degree of success, which its friends hoped for. The long established prejudice in favor of sanguinary and ignominious punishments, had not been completely eradicated; and this project had the usual fate of half measures; it was soon discovered that *public* labour, mutilation, and whipping, were equally incompatible with the reformation of the criminal, and the exhibition of a salutary example to society. The convicts who were sentenced to the wheel-barrow, chained and dispersed along the streets, &c. exhibited the most shameful scenes of drunkenness, indelicacy, and other vices. The inconveniences of the punishment of *public* labour became so intolerable, that it was regarded as a common nuisance.

The friends to the cause of humanity, amongst whom the Quakers were most conspicuous, not disheartened by the small success of their benevolent exertions, persevered in the object of amelioration, and to this end formed themselves into a society *for alleviating the miseries of public prisons*, the object of which was, to inquire into the abuses of public places of confinement, and to report them to the legislature, with a petition for redress; and also to examine the influence of confinement or imprisonment, on the morals of the persons who were the subjects of them.

The exertions of the society, after considerable opposition, procured from the legislature an amendment to the penal code, by an act of the 5th of April, 1790, which abolished the former punishments, and established in lieu of them, *private* labour, fine and imprisonment. Not being sanguine in their hopes of the success of the project, they thought it prudent to limit the existence of the law to the space of five years.

The mitigated code of criminal law still experienced considerable opposition from many who were not deficient in benevolence, but who despaired of its final success. Even the judges of the state of Pennsylvania, with the exception of the humane and enlightened Wm. Bradford, persisted in their attachment to the ancient system of severity and degradation.

The legislature, being at length convinced of the salutary effects of the new system, by the memorable act of the 22d of April, 1794, abolished the punishment of death for every crime, excepting murder of the first degree. Any kind of murder perpetrated by means of poison, by laying in wait, or by any other kind of wilful, deliberate, and premeditated killing, committed in the perpetration, or attempt to perpetrate, any rape, robbery, or burglary, is declared to be murder of the first degree. Persons guilty of other offences are therefore now divided into classes. Of the first class are all persons guilty of offences, which, previous to the passing of the law, were punishable with death; and also those guilty of other heinous offences, mentioned in the act. These undergo a punishment compounded of hard labour and solitary confinement, for a certain term of years. Those of the second class, are convicts condemned for offences less criminal, who are merely subjected to hard labour. As to the measure for each particular crime or misdemeanor, it is principally discretionary with the judges of the court, before whom they are tried.

The prison, or work-house, is a very strong and secure building, constructed of stone, with a ground floor and two stories, resembling an incomplete parrallelogram, with a north front on Walnut, and a south one in Prune-street. The principal front on Walnut-street measures one hundred and ninety feet in length, and forty feet in depth. The east and west sides or wings of the same depth, respectively, extend at right angles with the main front, ninety-five feet in a southern direction, and then join stone walls of twenty feet in height, running to the south-east and south-west corners. The west wing is on South Sixth-street. These three sides are appropriated for the confinement of criminals, vagrants, &c. and whose outward appearance does not much resemble a prison, but neat, handsome, and no inconsiderable ornament to the city.

Nearly contiguous to the east wing, is a brick edifice of two stories, raised upon arches, of about forty feet in length, and twenty-five in breadth, set apart for the purpose of solitary confinement. The south front in Prune-street is partly the wall, and partly the debtor's apartment, a stone building originally intended for a work-house, about forty-five feet in length, and fifty-five in depth. The whole of the buildings stand on a lot of two hundred feet by four hundred; one hundred feet of the south part of which is divided off for the use of the debtors by a wall running east and west.

Each visitor must obtain a permit from one of the Committee of Inspectors, upon producing which to the turnkey he is to conduct you through the different parts of the prison. You are first shewn through the grand entry, secured by an iron grated door about midway, and from thence (across a court or passage running from one end of the front to the other) directly into the yard of the prison. Instead of having your eyes pained, as might naturally be expected, by the gloomy appearance of the walls of a jail-yard, you find yourself amidst a small industrious community. At the south-west corner of the yard stands a wooden building, in which is established a manufactory of nails on an extensive plan. About five hundred weight of which are daily produced by the labour of the criminals.

Next to the manufactory is a

blacksmith's shop, while in other parts of the yard are erected small sheds, where the occupations of sawing marble, cutting stone, &c. are pursued in their respective branches.

In the interior apartments, the ground-floor, or front half-story, is chiefly appropriated for kitchens. The first story has no communication with the second, except by a flight of steps outside in the yard. At the back part of each floor there are long courts or passages, extending from one end of the building to the other, about the width of twelve feet. Along the passage are ranged eight apartments, three of which being occupied as the apartments of the jailer, and one made use of as the inspector's room, have no entrance to them withinside of the iron-grated door. The rest open into the passage, and are work-shops, with tools for carpenters, joiners, turners, shoe-makers, weavers, and taylers. These different trades are carried on with the utmost industry. There were also persons in the court, employed in chipping logwood. The work-shops are of the dimensions of twenty feet by nineteen; neat, healthy, and airy; perfectly secure from fire and an escape, by being arched over with stone, and having double iron gratings to the windows. No communication with them can be effected by persons in the street.

The upper story contains the same number of rooms, ranged in like manner as the lower apartments; the first of which, at the west end, is set apart as an infirmary, and the rest bed rooms. In each of the rooms are about one dozen beds with mattresses, sheets, and rugs; every prisoner being allowed a single bed. All these front stories are appropriated for none but male convicts.

The first story of the east wing contains five apartments, constructed in the same manner, in which are confined persons accused and committed for trial, who are not made to labour. In the second, or upper story, are the vagrants, and runaway servants. These persons are employed in beating hemp, picking moss, hair, wool, or oakum. There is a court-yard to this wing, measuring ninety by thirty-two feet.

The apartments of the women are in the west wing of the prison, on Sixth-street. In the first story are four rooms, ranged in the same manner as those of the east wing, appropriated for the use of the female convicts; besides another, used as a store-room for the articles manufactured in the house. The women perform their labour in the passage; they are engaged in spinning cotton and mop yarn, carding wool, picking cotton, sewing, and preparing flax and hemp; and in washing and mending. They have a court-yard, of the same dimensions of the one belonging to the untried criminals, and male vagrants. In the upper story of this wing are confined female vagrants, and women of bad character, who are also kept at profitable employments.

There is no intercourse whatever between the males and females; they cannot even see each other. None again between convicted and untried criminals; nor between either of them and the vagrants. This must at all times be a desirable object. Persons who have not been convicted, ought not, in justice, to have connection with, and be placed among, such prisoners as have been condemned. As the intention of the new system of laws is not only to punish offenders, but to restore them reformed to society, it is more absolutely ne-

cessary, that the *convicts* should be kept apart from the vagrants.

It is well known, that in no one place are offered more injurious and vicious examples, than in a prison, where all classes of prisoners are intermingled, without regard either to age, sex, or degree of guilt. Those in many parts of Europe, and several in America, have long stood melancholy evidences of this fact. Thousands are committed annually for a trifling fault, or misdemeanor,—many from misfortune, or accident—and we may venture to assert, that scarcely one has been dismissed with the same stock of morality he carried in with him. Accustomed to idleness, debauchery, and practice of frauds upon their keepers, upon visitors, and upon each other, the young and inexperienced criminal is early taught to imitate the dexterity of his elders—the timorous soon acquires the audacity of his more hardened companions—the modest become spectators of, and inured to the indelicacy and indecency of others—and thus, amidst such frequent opportunities for vice, are planned, not a trifling proportion of the murders, robberies and other kinds of villainy, perpetrated after their escape or discharge.

In Philadelphia, the *separation* of the different classes of prisoners was, therefore, deemed an object of the highest importance.

The constant and hard labour to which a criminal is sentenced in Pennsylvania, has been productive of the most beneficial effects. Although humane, it is a punishment sufficiently severe to excite the terror of the depraved; and, besides affording an example of justice, it is of all others the best adapted for the amendment of the convict himself. Again, as the design of penalties is not only to prevent the commission of crimes, and reform offenders, but likewise to make reparation for the injury done to society, or one of its members; the last of these objects, cannot be better obtained, than by the personal industry of the criminal, while under condemnation.

If at the expiration of the confinement of the delinquent, and after paying the expenses of his commitment, prosecution, and trial; the value of articles stolen, or damage done to the prosecutor; the fine to the commonwealth; hire of the tools he makes use of; and, lastly, the expences of his board, clothing, washing, and lodging, any balance, or overplus, is found to remain, it is paid to him in cash or clothing. The fine to the commonwealth is generally remitted.

For each convict a separate account is kept, charging him with his clothing, sustenance, &c. and in which a reasonable allowance for his labour is credited.

The clothing of the convicts is altogether manufactured in the prison. In winter, the men are dressed in jackets, waistcoats and trowsers of woollen; and in summer, with coarse linen shirts and trowsers. The women in plain gowns of the same. The stuff is woven by the males, and made up by the females. There is not a mattress, sheet, rug, coverlid, nor any thing else in that line, but what is likewise manufactured in the house.

Great attention is paid to the health of the prisoners. On any person's complaining, and upon examination of the physician found to be diseased, he is removed to the infirmary of the prison, his name entered on a book kept for the purpose, and there remains until recovered; when he must immediately resume his accustomed employment.

(*To be continued.*)

SUPERIOR IRISH MANUFACTURE.

IT cannot fail of being highly gratifying to every lover of Ireland to witness the vast improvement she is daily making in manufactures of every description, and at a time too when the devastating effects of an almost universal warfare renders every effort of this kind doubly difficult. Manufactures and Commerce approaching to perfection, when opposed by obstacles so very powerful, speak loudly for the native resources and genius of our country, and give us hopes that under the fostering hand of peace, we may arrive at a state of equality or superiority to our richest and most enlightened neighbours. We are led to these observations, from having seen an article the manufacture of the indefatigable and enterprising Messrs. Duffy & Sons, whose exertions in favour of native industry, are exceeded by none in the country.

The article we allude to is in the way of print in shawls, scarfs and tippets, in imitation of those in silk that have the figures wrought in them of the India kind, and a better we have not seen; indeed so striking is the effect, and so inimitable the likeness, that at a short distance it is impossible to know them from the richest silk.—The fabric is of twilled muslin, and the colours, which are now doing for the winter trade, are principally macone and crimson grounds, with rich flowered borders and bright yellow fillings in the centre; some of them are done plain, but we think the filled have the best effect.

One of them has been presented by the makers to the Duchess of Dorset, when her Grace was pleased to declare her decided approbation of them, which indeed we have no doubt of their meeting with from the public at large. In some respects they are superior to silk, being more durable, and combining with all the beauty of appearance, the quality of washing, being fast colours, printed nearly through, and alike on both sides. We understand Messrs. Duffy & Sons have obtained a patent for this very valuable improvement, which makes us in this respect at least the rivals of London, hitherto the superior seat of the printed muslin manufacture; and, we trust, when these colours and style of work are introduced in muslin and calico, to be able to bring to market goods exceeded by none of their choicest productions.

BALLINASLOE SHOW.

THE present has been the most numerous, and the competition in the respective classes the most spirited of any that has yet taken place—the number of cattle produced for the premiums of the Society having been 125—that of sheep 81—horned 8—swine 10—in all 227 animals.

The show of sheep increasing, excepting the Merino classes.

There were 76,000 sheep sold, at an average of eight shillings beyond the prices of the former year, and nearly nine thousand head of cattle, at a similarly increased rate.

Sheep,	sold.....	76,218	
———	unsold.....	870—	77,088
Oxen,	sold.....	6,604	
———	unsold.....	311—	6,915
Cows,	sold.....	2,098	
———	unsold.....	242—	2,340

Gross number of horned cattle, 9,255

At the show of horses, the sire which carried the prize and medal, was very generally approved of.

MONTHLY NOTICES

OF ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND PRACTICAL SCIENCE.

Method of preparing Wheat for Seed.—The best wheat for seed should be laid on the kiln four or five inches thick, the kiln to be heated middling strong with blind coal (coak), and continued thereon for twenty-four hours, being turned frequently; after being taken off the kiln, allow it twenty-four hours to cool, turning it at times; afterwards it is put through the fanners, by which operation all the light grain, &c. is separated from the plump seed, which alone is proper for sowing.

After the wheat has lain upon the kiln, and the fire began to have effect, a great number of *very small worms*, formerly undiscovered by the eye, appear on the top of the grain, which are destroyed by the heat; these if not destroyed, may produce the smut: and every suspicious corn being thrown out by the fanners, none but proper grain is sown by the farmer.

Steam Barge.—Last month a new steam barge left Yarmouth for Norwich, and on its passage excited a considerable degree of curiosity: numbers of persons hastened to the river to see it pass. It is moved by a number of oars somewhat in the shape of a barn shovel, fixed on each side of the vessel, round an axis, which is turned by a small steam engine. Its rate of going was about five miles an hour. It has since gone regularly between Norwich and Yarmouth, price 6d. each person.

Economical method of cutting Cauliflowers.—Instead of cutting off the whole heads of cauliflowers leave part on, of the size of a gooseberry, and all of the leaves; second and even third heads will be formed, and thus they may be eaten for two or three months: whereas, at present, by cutting the heads completely off, the beds of cauliflowers are gone in two or three weeks.

Calculation.—A meeting of the Gloucester Severn Association took place at the Torsay, in the city lately, when a gentleman exhibited the following statement of the benefits likely to accrue from the effectual preservation of the salmon fisheries in the Severn. He had carefully ascertained the number of eggs in the roe of a salmon weighing 17lb.: they amounted to 11,350. Supposing each egg to yield a fish of 1lb. the quantity of food thus produced would equal five tons; the same number at 10lbs. each, would give fifty tons; and 100 spawners of the same weight, would give no less than 5000 tons—a quantity of human food equal to the produce of ten thousand acres of wheat at twenty bushels per acre, when converted into flour, at the rate of 56 lbs. per bushel.

Medical Suggestions.—A desperate case of *constipation*, was successfully treated by the application of ice to the abdomen—in somewhat more than an hour the symptoms were removed.—A correspondent states, that he removed *ague*, by taking the cold bath, while the fit was on, and immediately going into a warm bed between the blankets, and that this very decided remedy *succeeded*.—It is stated, that *tooth-ache* may be prevented, by using *sulphur* as tooth-powder, particularly going to bed; the writer says from his own experience, that it preserves the teeth, and communicates no smell to the mouth.

Receipt against Infection.—Forty-six grains of black oxide of manganese, in coarse powder, are to be put in a strong glass phial, with an accurately ground glass stopper, to which two drachm measures of nitric acid of 1400 specific gravity, and an equal measure of muriatic acid of 1134, must be added; replace the stopper, and secure the whole by inclosing it in a strong wooden case with a good screw top, which, when fast shall rest on the stopper so as to keep it in its place. To use it, merely open the phial, with the nose averted, and replace the stopper when the smell is perceived; repeat it of course occasionally, as you would any other fumigation. A phial so prepared, will last, instead of six months, several years; the mixture ought not occupy more than one-third of the bottle. Any chemist can furnish the ingredients. This apparatus destroys all kinds of infection.

Substitute for bad Porter.—An ingenious chemist, in East Smithfield, London, near the Tower, has invented a method of compressing malt and hops, in the way that portable soups are managed—it is called *essence of malt and hops*, and we trust it will become better known, and come into general use.

Method of obtaining good carp.—Rake the mud round the outside of the pond, about April, when the waters are low, and sow hay on it; in the winter when flooded, the produce will afford excellent food for the carp, and make them fat.

Literature, Science and the Fine Arts.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MONTHLY MUSEUM.

Sir,

I have been for many years a resident of the city of Dublin, and have to regret, with many others, the loss of an agreeable *periodical publication*; any thing, even *Mercier's* night-cap, philosophical and heavy as it is; the essays are within a moderate compass, and they are written with taste and talent.—Yet here is a large and opulent city, the seat of an University—booksellers shops in abundance—printers, printers-devils, hot-pressers, &c. &c. in short the whole regalia of literature, the majestic dame herself alone is wanting; like the witches in Macbeth holding a semblance and a mockery to the eye, or like the play of Hamlet in the barn, the principal character left out by particular desire. Is it not unaccountable how we can be thus dreadfully deficient of literary emulation, whilst in all the external vanities of life, from his lordship's wig to the meanest article of ornament sold at our meanest haberdashers, we can vie with the belle and beau esprit, that glitter in ephemeral pomp through the streets of London? Is there no anti-somnific in this age of chemistry to awaken the dormant talent of the country? a country too that can boast itself the birth place of a Swift, a Burke and a Goldsmith? We do not want the Herculean labours of a Barrett, or the abstract *theology* of a Walker; nay, even in the lighter effusions of mind, we do not ask to be partakers of the feast, we only demand the gleanings of the table, or the overflowing of the bowl, a few pages of literary tinsel to ornament the outworks of the mind—a monthly pamphlet of local entertainment—only ten-penn'worth of original miscellany, for the remaining half can easily be selected by a person of tolerable good taste and common erudition.—"Is genius paralysed or dead?" says the admirable author of Familiar Epistles—but I beg pardon, your Museum promises something better, and I am sure you will not be displeased at the rambling reflections of an old man, who though not a literary character, has sorely felt the loss of those lighter resources of knowledge, that almost every village in the sister kingdoms has adopted with success, as vehicles of entertainment and useful local information.

Your "Prospectus" wherein you state that you will not interfere with other publications "living or dead," prevents me from entering fully into what I consider the general failure of *Magazines* amongst us, having been a constant reader of publications of this kind such as they are—you will therefore accept of the enclosed *petits morceaux*, or magazine of my own*, as a miniature sample of what I think with your good taste, might be improved upon. Light and airy variety is essentially necessary to the existence of a periodical work of any kind, but particularly a Magazine; its primary object being

* We have inserted the different articles our valued Correspondent contributed this month, with the signature "J. E." arranged under their respective heads, according to the plan of our Miscellany. Editor.

to circulate in the middle walk of life, where literature is but a casual relaxation, or a temporary source of improvement.—The immortal author of the *Rambler* failed for want of ease and variety; and it is to the localizing familiar manner of Addison, the unpedantic and simple view he has taken, (if I may be allowed the expression,) of elegant and important subjects, that has made his style and manner the best model that can be adopted for periodical compositions.

I have the honor to be, &c.

JACK ERUDITE.

CRITICAL CATALOGUE OF NEW BOOKS:

WITH CHARACTERISTIC EXTRACTS.

An Essay on Bathing, by Sir A. Clarke, *Knt. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London.—Messrs.* Gilbert & Hodges, *and all the Booksellers, —Dublin*, 1813.

THIS work is dedicated to the Duke of Richmond; and both the subject and its execution are well worthy vice-regal patronage. To a candid mind, of all the literary labours necessary in completing a monthly Miscellany, the Reviewing department is the most irksome. We rejoice, however, that they commence with a publication like this.—a publication much wanted—a publication big with practical information in the healing art, and conferring solid and extensive benefit on society.

In the district of Dublin and its vicinity, we are confident we do not say too much, when we assert, that, from its situation, hundreds perish annually by improper bathings; but that millions might be restored to health—some of them rescued from the jaws of death, by following the advice contained in this essay.

The introductory remarks are replete with strong sense—though perhaps the enthusiasts of our day will not thank Sir Arthur for his sensible remark, that "it is pro-"bable that the famous pool of "Bethesda, in which so many cures "were performed, was nothing "more than a natural *medicated* "*warm bath.*"

The utility of bathing is proved in this part of the work, by a reference to the practice of different nations.

"In the capital of the Roman Empire, according to *Fabricius*, there were not fewer than eight hundred and fifty-six public baths, some of which were sufficiently large to contain at once eighteen hundred persons; which establishments were regulated by the legislature.

"Among the Turks and Arabians, bathing was an established custom at a very early period, and is considered as a necessary of life to this day. In Russia there is scarcely a peasant's hut without its *vapour* bath; and at Moscow, public baths are more numerous than the bagnios at Constantinople."

On the use of the cold bath in raging fever many would pause—we will not attempt to decide. The story of the Persian physician is a strange one. But we remember the instance of a man, who similarly circumstanced leaped into a well, and almost instantly recovered. The relation of the sailor and the shark is still more extraordinary—we shall give it in the author's own words.

"A seaman on board the Princess Amelia, East Indiaman, at the Diamond Harbour, where the company's ships anchor, a very stout, athletic man, to whom the remittent fever had at times alternated

with epilepsy, (a disorder very frequent in the East Indies,) jumped over board; at the moment he did this, an alligator was along-side the ship—he seemed at once to become sensible of his danger, and swam with great vigour till he was assisted. The moment he came on deck, his countenance, which was before grim and unpromising, assumed a more mild and temperate aspect; his pulse, which had been extremely quick and feeble, was now slower and fuller; and his recollection, which had been confused and indistinct, became clear and accurate; he was immediately rubbed dry and put to bed—his senses returned instantly—he fell into a profound sleep, which terminated in a profuse and general perspiration. The consequences were, a very speedy and permanent recovery."

The effects of the tepid bath are described by Sir Arthur in the most glowing colours; and if what is asserted under this head be but partially founded on fact, this practice of bathing cannot be too much encouraged.

"In the approach to old age, the tepid bath, at the highest range, (95 degrees,) not only removes those decaying parts of the cuticle, which obstruct perspiration and give rise to the scaly appearance and dry harsh feel of the skin, so commonly perceived, but it relieves most gratefully declining periods of our existence, and protracts the rigidity of fibre, which is at once the great cause and symptom of decrepitude.

"It has been hinted, by Lord Bacon, that the tradition of *Æson* being restored to youth, by means of the medicated cauldron of *Medea*, was in fact an allegorical representation of the effects of the warm bath, in retarding the approach of old age.

"On this principle the Doctor informs us, that "when Dr. Franklin, the American philosopher, was in England many years ago, he recommended to him the use of a warm bath twice a week, to prevent the too speedy access of old age, of which he then thought he felt the approach; and to relieve infirmities under which he actually laboured. It gave him considerable ease in a disorder with which he was afflicted, (the stone)—and answered the other intentions for which he used it—for he died at an advanced period of life, having for many years been in the constant habit of using the tepid bath."

We pass over that part of the work on the "Warm Bath.—Its nature and effects are well known to most of our readers; but the medicated bath is an article of the deepest interest. Its application in various maladies is now universally admitted. We perhaps confer the greatest benefit we could possibly bestow on our readers, by presenting them with an extract, as important as ever was made from any work:—

"The following recipe for a medicated bath, I was favoured with by a French Physician, which is the form I have recommended in a variety of cases in cutaneous disorders, from the slightest eruption on the face and skin, to the most obstinate scorbutic complaints, approaching to leprosy. This is the *medicated bath* used by *Buonaparte*, and may be prepared in the following manner:—

"To produce water similar to that of the *Source Royal*, at *Barege*.—Take for every gallon of water you wish to impregnate,

Two grains of alumine,
Two grains of carbonate of lime,
Two grains of hard Spanish soap,
Four grains of muriat of soda,
Twenty grains of dried carbonate of soda, and
Sixteen grains of the sulphuret of potash;

Grind the materials together, and boil them in as much water as will dissolve them; stir them over the fire, till the sulphurated hydrogen gas is disengaged, which is known by the smell of rotten eggs; then mix the ingredients with the water of the bath, previously prepared."

It is the observation of a very celebrated writer, "That the use "of mercurials has thinned the "population of mankind, more "than the sword of war."—We never felt ourselves more deeply interested on behalf of our species in the perusal of any work: if the author has not committed himself in error, the vapour bath ought immediately to become an object of national attention.

"The advantages derived from the vapour bath, in restoring the strength of persons debilitated by the use of mercury,

induced me to employ that remedy more frequently, during its exhibition, in the hope of *preventing* those evils it had only been hitherto applied to remove. In pursuing this indication, I could not but be struck by the greater facility with which the mercury acted upon the constitution, the comparative rapidity of the cure, as well as the diminution of the poisonous effect of the mineral, when the bathing was employed in conjunction with it: I have, in consequence, generally adopted, and after an ample experience in the naval hospital and private practice, for three years, (since the establishment of baths in Dublin,) I can assert that in every instance where I combined these two remedies, the patients recovered in nearly half the time, and with little more than one-half the mercury usually employed in such cases. The bath was used every day, by which means the system was strengthened against the debilitating effects of the mercury, and fortified against the influence of cold. Thus may the constitution be preserved, and the cure of many obstinate disorders rendered less difficult, by the assistance of a powerful, though perfectly safe auxiliary; and thus may be prevented, the puny and degenerate offspring of those, who from their shattered, broken down, and enfeebled constitutions, caused by disorders contracted in warm climates and at home, are obliged to undergo repeated courses of mercury, a necessity which seldom fails, even in the strongest constitutions, of producing a predisposition to *scrofula*, and perhaps other diseases in their offspring. And here let me observe, that no act of benevolence could be more essential to the comforts of the community, than that of establishing vapour baths for the poor, in *all* the hospitals and charitable institutions, with which this great and populous city abounds; the lives of many might be saved, and the expenditure for medicine be considerably diminished."

This author writes with the precision of the scholar—the ease of the gentleman—and, what is above either—that candour which is the certain indication that the writer is instigated by no motive, but the discovery of truth, and the promotion of science. First thanking him sincerely on behalf of ourselves and mankind, we shall conclude with quoting the last paragraphs of his book.

"The cases to which the vapor bath seems best adapted, are chiefly gout, rheumatism, palsy, several affections of the skin, as leprosy, and ulcers, also, after dislocations, and in white swellings of the joints. It is of use in female obstructions, chilblains, tetanus, dropsy, diabetes, strangulated hernia, and inflammations of the stomach and bowels. It is evident that its first effects would be attended with danger, in a plethoric state of the body, or where there is much determination to the head—in such cases, therefore, previous steps must be taken to remove plethora or relieve the head.

"Such then are the circumstances which regulate the practice, and ensure the utility of bathing. By the perusal of these pages, the reader, while he is guarded against the ill consequences of an injudicious, unregulated, or unadvised use of a powerful remedy, may perceive grounds for hope of success, in the treatment of many obstinate and chronic complaints, by this timely and guarded application.—From the vapour bath, especially, the greatest expectations may be indulged in the cases above enumerated; for, unless greatly blinded by prejudice, the author has rather undervalued than overrated its utility.

"With respect to the main object of this work, the removal of prejudices too frequently entertained, which impede the general benefit to be derived from bathing, it is hoped that enough has been said: like other prejudices, they can only yield to time, and it is sufficient praise to this little book, if it succeeds in anticipating that period."

A view of Society and Manners in the North of Ireland, in the summer and autumn of 1812.—*By* J. Gamble, Esq. *Cradock & Joy*, 1813.

It is rational to suppose that the publication of new books should be a stimulus to literary curiosity, and that rising merit should accede to the inheritance of fame. It is with such impressions on the mind, that several writers have attempted to run the literary race. But as several valuable productions have been almost dead-born, and as se-

veral trifles which disgrace learning, prove the sophisticated taste of our æra, it is almost madness to enlist under the banners of the Nine. Notwithstanding this corruption we find several candidates for the bays; the healthy relying on their vigour, the impotent on their intrusions. Of the latter it is not now our intention to speak; but amongst the former we feel it our duty to take notice of Mr. Gamble's view of society and manners in the North of Ireland; not only because it is a work which commands our approbation, but also because it is a magnet which should attract national interest.—The plan is that of a narrative divided into chapters. He commences his book with an account of his passage from Liverpool to Newry, and soon proceeds in a description of the treatment which he received in the inn; where he was accommodated with a press-bed in a room where two other beds were, which had been bespoke prior to his arrival. When he had been lain down about an hour, he heard his two colleagues retiring to rest; but they were characterised by no symptoms which indicated sleep, except the narcotic fumes of the spirit of their native spirit, which seemed however by means of a contrary indication, to keep the noisy spirit awake. Morpheus at length imposing his power, allowed our traveller to take some repose, from which he was roused at an early hour, by the noise of people who were preparing for the setting out of the coaches.

Though in the inn he did experience the native hospitality of the Irish, yet in private houses, where he was constrained to spend some days, he found this character completely verified. Pursuing a northward course, he visited Hillsborough, Lisburn and Belfast; when in the last mentioned place, he went into the city library, where he uniformly was a solitary visitor; for in this city Mercury has more votaries attending his commercial institutes, than Apollo can meet at his intellectual levee. Having given some general outline of the political notions of Belfast, he conducts us to Carrickfergus and Larne; on the way to which, meditation was expelled from all haunts which hitherto were tenable in his brain, by the frequent salutations of the peasantry as well as by the roughness of the roads. He at length arrives at Larne, which he evacuates on the next morning.

As he journeys, he contemplates on the religious and political principles of the North of Ireland; and takes a retrospect of party motives during the rebellion of 1798, in which he proves the diversity of inclinations during that period; some requiring only parliamentary reform, others a complete dismemberment from the dominions of Great Britain.

Another source of his observation is the division of genteel society in the North into two classes; in the descendents of the old English settlers, and the commercial community; the latter being mostly Presbyterians, and their wealth more lately acquired, are looked upon by the former with the eye of jealousy. These provincial distinctions lead Mr. Gamble to speak of the injurious consequences which must result from a renovation of rebellious principles; which remark introduces some observations on the importance of Ireland to the British weal.

"On the importance of Ireland to England, it is unnecessary to dwell. England does not produce food enough for the consumption of her inhabitants; she could neither victual her army nor navy, without the assistance of Ireland; she could not even have so large an army or navy to eat

these victuals without her assistance; with the progress of commerce and luxury, she has become effeminate." It is never the virtuous part of manufacturers, but the vicious, therefore, the idle and unemployed, that enlist in England. It is in Ireland, therefore, that she must look for her army. The population is immense, ill fed, and ill clad; an Englishman in the army leads a life of hardship and want; an Irishman, a life of luxury and ease; his early habits enable him to live upon little, and the hardihood of his frame bears fatigue, that would kill many Englishmen; he passes whole days without nourishment, apparently regardless of heat, or cold, or hunger, or thirst. It is asserted that one-third of the army and navy are Irishmen. I have no means of ascertaining the truth or falsity of this; but of this I am certain, did the Catholic gentry and clergy exert themselves among the people, there would be ten soldiers or sailors for one who goes at present; were the feelings of national or religious interest embodied with those, (whatever they may be,) which now operate, how powerful would be the effect, and how easily could the coarse, but energetic, eloquence of the Irish clergy raise up an army (like the fabled men of Cadmus of old,) in the course of a single night!"

Next follow some observations on the prevalence of consumption in Ireland, which Mr. Gamble attributes less to the variations of climate, than to the modish attire of the fashionable females; and there takes occasion to give the legislative power a hint to enforce the use of flannel.

In another part of his book, Mr. Gamble compares the English manufacturer with the Irish peasant; and here he says, that the independence of the one, is more than equipoised by the health of the other; which he attributes not only to the diet, but also to the out-door labour which support and invigorate the Hibernian.

"Milk and vegetable diet, not only mend his heart and humanize his disposition, but give him, if not better health, at least longer life. Animal food is a much higher stimulus than vegetable. It quickens the circulation much more, and sooner wears out the powers of life. The lamp burns the brighter, perhaps, (and only perhaps,) but it burns the quicker. I have felt the pulses of a number of English and Irish peasants, and have always found those of the latter slower than those of the former."

The Lamentations of the Children of Israel, *representing the Hardships they suffer from the Penal Laws: and praying, that if they are repealed, so as to exempt the* Catholics *and Dissenters from their influence, the Jews may also enjoy the Benefit of this Indulgence, in common with the rest of his Majesty's Subjects. In a Letter to a Dignified Clergyman of the Church of* England. *By* Abraham, Isaac, *and* Jacob, Moses, Aaron, *and* Levi, David, Bathsheba, Solomon, 1000 *Wives and Concubines,* Daniel Belteshazzar, Mannaseh Ben Israel, *of the House of* David.—8vo. pp. 72.—Souter.

WHO would suppose, by the title-page, that this pamphlet could be any thing beyond an ironical attempt at wit? It is, however, a serious attack on Christianity; and, though not likely to be the production of "one of the children of Israel, a Jew, a circumcised Jew," is evidently written by one well acquainted with the *modern* as well as *ancient* history of that peculiar race of men. Not only the doctrines and ritual of the Church of England are boldly censured; but the tenets and the practice of Dissenters of every denomination (with the exception of the class called *Unitarians*) are severely lashed.

The Athanasian creed, and the doctrine of the Trinity, are of course most unmercifully handled. We shall not, however, obtrude any remarks on those offensive passages; but an extract or two shall be given from less exceptionable parts of the pamphlet.

Speaking of the "children of Israel," the writer facetiously says,

"We are charged with too violent a passion for the mammon of unrighteousness; but we find the most sanctified christians, in respect of worldly lucre,

as little scrupulous of taking the profit to themselves, as they are of throwing the scandal upon us. We get what we can, and keep what we get, not by any principle of religion, but of convenience; and this principle reigns in as full perfection amongst the Saints at Rome, or Geneva, as among the children of Israel in Duke's-place.—We cannot but admire at such uncivil usage from our brethren the Dissenters, who have laid themselves under so many obligations to us Jews, have turned us out of the possession of all our ancient privileges, and allow us as little right in the Old Jerusalem, as we pretend to have in the New.—In short, they make as free with Sion, as if they were lords of the manor; and appropriate the songs of Sion to themselves, as if they were hymns of their own composing. They have made prize of all the psalms of David, as if he had not been king of Israel; and all the blessings of the Law, and all the curses in the prophets, are converted to their own use, as if the Israelites had no property in them. —After this, it is strange that they will share with us none of their emoluments, and that they would debar us of all indulgences which they lay claim to themselves."

"You, Sir," he adds, addressing the dignified clergyman, "will judge between us Jews and the Dissenters and Catholics, whether we have not the same right as they have to employments? or, what pretence there can be, that, against the constitution of the country in which we live, we, of all other people, should have no share in enacting or executing the laws which we are bound to obey? why might not the land of Canaan be as profitably represented in parliament as the kingdom of Scotland or Ireland since the Union; and with as little prejudice to the church of England, from our synagogue, as from their kirk or chapel? why may we not adorn one side of St. Stephen's chapel with our flaxen wigs and sallow faces, in as becoming a manner as our northern or Irish brethren appear on the other side in their black ones?—with regard to public employments, are there not abundance of them in this happy island which are fitter for Jews than for Christians, and which have insensibly transformed good Christians into real Jews, by the prevalent force of example? what may you think, Sir, of us Jews, in the capacity of excise officers? Or, what think you of excise officers, as different in any thing from us Jews; but that the circumcised are in all respects fit to be excisemen, and that the excisemen are most of them fit to be circumcised?"

In the conclusion of the pamphlet, the present ruler of France, is extolled to the skies, for "that great and unexpected revolution of the age, the installation of a grand Sanhedrim of the wanderers of Israel at Paris."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MONTHLY MUSEUM.

OF STYLE IN WRITING.

Sir,

"PROPER words in proper places" is Swift's definition of good writing; every thing in its proper place is right, but the sense is too general to yield a satisfactory conclusion. Addison's is better, "That which is natural but not obvious;" this was certainly his own style, neither his words nor manner rise much above the level of conversation, and in his criticisms on Milton, whoever reads the poem with taste will probably feel the same observations, but no one would have expressed them with the same elegant simplicity of Addison.

Johnson's manner is more powerful, and leaves a stronger impression on the mind.

Hume, Robertson, &c. &c. have adopted a middle style with more energy than Addison, and less pomp of colouring than Johnson, and will probably long continue the standard style of English prose.

J. E.

NEW VOCAL MUSICAL PUBLICATIONS OF MERIT.

"The Russian Sacrifice, or Burning of Moscow;" a grand Melo-Drama, the words by H. B. Code, Esq. composed by Sir J. Stevenson.

"Soft gentle Nymphs," and "Prepare ye Nymphs Prepare;" two celebrated Trios from the Opera of *Psyche*, composed by Do.

"Allen Adale;" a Trio from Scots Poem "*Rokeby*," composed by Do.

"The Harper's," 1st and 2nd Song from Do composed by Mr. Mazzinghi.

"O Brignal Banks;" a Trio, from Do. composed by Do.

"The Cypress Wreath;" a Trio, from Do. by Do.

"Remember the Moment;" a Canzonet by T. Cook.

"Is there a Heart that never Lov'd;" a Song composed and sung by Mr. Braham.

"Though Love is warm awhile;" Do. Do.

"'Tis but Fancy's Sketch;" the celebrated Picture Song, from the Opera of the *Devil's Bridge*, by Do.

"The Prison Song;" from Do.

"Behold in his soft expressive Face;" by Do.

"Rest weary Traveller;" a Duet, from the Opera of the *Devil's Bridge*, composed by Do.

"My early Day;" Do. Do.

"The Moom-beam Plays;" a Duet, composed by Mr. H. R. Bishop.

"For Home and Native Land;" Do. Do.

"My dark eyed Maid;" a Song by Do.

"Ah can I e'er forget Thee;" Do. Do.

"The Mariner's Adieu;" Do.

"Mad Margery;" Do. Do.

"The Bed of Roses;" Do. Do.

"The Maid of the Mountain;" Do. Do.

"The Sigh, and she knew not Why;" Do. Mr. Horne.

"The Fond Heart;" Do. Do.

"Ah Flattering Man;" Do. Do.

"Loves stolen Kiss;" Do. Do.

"The Parent Bird;" Do. Do.

"Fancy Flies on Sportive Wings;" sung by Mr. Philipps, composed by Mr. Parry.

"The Voice of her I Love;" sung by Mr. Braham, arranged by Do.

"Beauty in Tears;" a simple Ballad, sung by Do. arranged by Do.

"A collection of Psalm Tunes, Chants, &c." adapted for the Organ or Piano Forte by Mr. Tomlins.

NEW INSTRUMENTAL MUSIC.

A Sonata for the Piano Forte, in which is introduced, Braham's celebrated song—"Said a Smile to a Tear," composed by Mr. J. B. Cramer.

A new grand Sonata for the Piano Forte, in G. minor, composed by Mr. D. Steibelt.

A Grand Sonata for Do. in which is introduced, "Ar hyd y Nos; composed by Mr. M. P. King.

A Sonata for Do. composed by Mr. Holder.

Le Concou; a Divertimento for Do. composed by Mr. J. Gildon.

A Sonata for Do. composed by Do. with an accompaniment for the Flute and Violin.

Twenty-eight Preludes for the Piano-Forte, by Mr. Holder.

The Battle of Salamanca—a Divertimento for Do. composed by J. Gildon.

Sixteen Favourite Airs, with variations for Do. composed by Mr. Mazzinghi. An accompaniment for the Harp and Flute separate.

No. 16, Les Petits Bijoux, (La Colombe Perdue,) composed by Mr. P. Rosselli.

Collection of Favourite Waltzes, as performed at the Nobility Fetes, arranged as Duets for the Piano Forte and Harp.

The Favourite Overture to Sharp and Flat, composed by Mr. Hook.

Three Sonatas for the Piano Forte, composed and dedicated to Mrs. Farll, by Mr. Knapton.

A Military Divertimento for Do. composed by Mr. T. Cooke.

The Bovhamian Divertimento for Do. composed by Mr. J. W. Holder.

A Chinese Rondo, composed by Mr. Holden.

Pray Goody; Air with Variations, for the Piano Forte, by J. B. Logier.

L'Aideo; a Fantascia for the Piano Forte, dedicated to the Duke and Duchess of Richmond, by J. Blewitt.

San Sebastian; a Grand Waltz for the Piano Forte, by J. Blewitt.

N. B. In our next we shall remark on the merits, &c. of the above.

Miscellanea.

To the Editor of the Monthly Museum.

THE PETITION OF ZACHARIAH DUST, ESQ.

SHEWETH,

THAT Petitioner is connected with some of the most respectable families in this country, and can point out on the genealogical tree, in the black letter edition of Geoffrey Chaucer, Esq. many illustrious personages in the sister kingdom, from whom his family has lineally descended.

That Petitioner lays no stress on his remote affinity to said poet, as Petitioner conceives that the generalizing vigour of mind, called talents, is rather a disqualifying trait in a true descendant of the Dust family, and that Petitioner rests his claim upon a broader basis than that which forms the temporary and accidental dignity of genius.

That Petitioner thinks he can trace his family as far back as the Norman conquest, and has no doubt but that it was one of the primo geniture branches of his family advised that wily monarch, William the first, to adopt the curfew—a measure, which, it is said, produced many curious and ludicrous effects, in that age of darkness, and is certainly strongly tinctured with that serio-comic colouring of intellect, which is a genuine and characteristic tinge of the Dust family.

That Petitioner has ascertained, to a moral certainty, that Peter, surnamed the Hermit, the preacher of the croisades, was a legitimate branch of his family, and that he likewise believes Cervantes typified his family of that age, in the person and acquirements of the redoubted Don Quixotte.

That during the wars of York and Lancaster, the family of Petitioner took an active and decided part, but to which of the noble houses they attached themselves, Petitioner cannot at present say; that, probably, like most of the good people of England, in those times of civil warfare, "when the foot of hostile paces bruised all the flowerets of the land," they were alternately attached to either rose, with unshaken loyalty. Petitioner has not, however, been able to ascertain the fact, after many curious enquiries and historic doubts, but hopes that it will be in his power to lay a full statement before the public, as it is a subject of "quaint and excellent device," well worthy the attention of modern annotators, and literary antiquarians.

That during the enlightened reign of Elizabeth, Petitioner must admit, that his family were not in much repute; the reformation and the whimsically cruel reign of her father Harry, having exhausted all their talents:—Petitioner has, however, the satisfaction to think, that they were not entirely neglected, as in the affairs of the Earl of Essex, Mary Queen of Scots, and an elderly lady of the Dust family, who was undoubtedly maid of honour to her Majesty, and chief councellor in all her love intrigues. That

"When civil dudgeon first grew high,
"And men fell out, they knew not why,"

many of Petitioner's family had the honour of truly representing in the famous parliaments, the rump

and barebones, some of the most respectable shires in England, and that one of Petitioner's ancestors accompanied the protector Cromwell when he invaded this country.

That Petitioner's great, great, great, grand uncle, having taken a particular liking to the civilized people of Ireland, settled amongst them, on some good town lands that were given him by the conqueror, and is the stem from which the numerous family of the Dusts of this country originated.

That Petitioner will not enter into particulars of his family after this period, as it is the wish of Petitioner to avoid all political and polemical controversy, or, Petitioner could, (if necessary) produce such a list of his family, both in church and state, as would not disgrace the most respectable name in the country.

That Petitioner has not boasted of his noble lineage from any motive of vain ostentation, but that his *name* and *family*, having become, as it were a bye word to his neighbours, Petitioner is obliged to lay a statement of facts before an "enlightened and thinking" people, in hopes of obtaining redress.

That Petitioner has therefore given the above characteristics of his family, to distinguish them from a spurious brood, who have wantonly and unprovokedly, deprived him and his family of their hereditary birth-right, by invading every walk of life, affecting the gravity, and endeavouring to swell into the dignity of true Dusts.

That Petitioner humbly throws himself on the mercy of his fellow citizens, praying their observance of the above rules, in judging the merits of his cause, and Petitioner hopes he will thereby be enabled to regain their future confidence, and retrieve the drooping spirit of his family, for which, Petitioner, as in duty bound, will ever pray.

J. E.

To the Editor of the Monthly Museum.

ON DRUNKENNESS.

Sir,

THE Goths and Vandals—War, Pestilence, and Famine, have not been more destructive to genius than drunkenness.—How many men of rare and excellent endowments have lived and died with no other ambition than to set the table in a roar. The ancients deified the god of wine, and sacrificed their reason at his yearly festival; but the moderns have made his mad orgies a diurnal rite. Rousseau says, we should moderate the ardour of Bacchus, by a communication with the nymphs—let us understand him literally—in banishing woman from the convivial board, those exquisite scrutations which the mind elicits, when inspired by wine and beauty, diverge into livid flashes of unmeaning jocularity or gross licentiousness.—How eloquently does the wise Ulysses address the enchantress Circé, when he beheld his noble companions thus vilely transformed:

Ill fits it me, whose friends are turn'd to beasts,
To quaff thy bowls and riot at thy feasts;
Me wouldst thou serve, thy cares for them employ,
And them to me restore, and me to joy.

This ought to be the language of every man of true sentiment.

J. E.

The Drama.

To the Editor of the Monthly Museum.

THE ACTOR.

THEATRICALS having so recently commenced, my remarks on acting shall be general. At some future period, I will be happy to congratulate *Mr. Talbot*, and our other friends on their *re-appearance*. To pass the line of mediocrity, the *Rubicon* that separates us from the empire of fame, is not so easily accomplished as many imagine: the failures in this art, and the few who have been able to arrive at perfection, is a convincing proof of the observation; amongst the numerous suitors of Penelope, there was not one who could bend the bow of Ulysses—but this is discouraging.

A bold, animated, and commanding exterior, is the first requisite of a great actor, the ground work on which a perfect superstructure alone can be erected: although the contrary is a violation of historic truth, we could not patiently submit to see the character of *Alexander*, personated by an insignificant looking performer, however great his other powers might be.

"Pritchard's genteel, and Garrick six feet high,"

Is a paradox that will probably, never again be verified.

The actor is the prototype, or semblance of a sentimental being, engendered by the poet; in the mind of the spectator, voice and other requisites must be in proportion, or the harmony of the whole will be destroyed.

Imitation, the mania of the present day, can only be compared to the ass performing the feats of the lap-dog; and as Lord Verulam observes of the monkey, that its deformity is aggravated by its similitude to man; so the actor, who labors to remind you of the manner of another, erects a standard to prove his own littleness—one original expression of passion or conception of character, is of more value in the eye of true taste, and bids fairer for celebrity, than whole scenes of artificial gesticulation *

Casting a play, as the players term it, requires more judgment, than what has been hitherto practised at our Theatre—if it be necessary that the powers of the individual should harmonize to produce particular perfection, what a considerable advantage must it be to observe the same rule in the variety of characters that compose an entire piece? there is no sensation leaves a more disagreeable impression on the mind, than that which is occasioned by abruptness, arising from a disproportion of parts: this effect can scarcely occur more violently, than when "a well graced actor leaves the stage," and should be avoided as much as possible in every attempt at theatrical perfection.

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* We felicitate our friend Jack Erudite on this remark. It is the soundest dramatic axiom that has been penned since the days of Aristotle.

DRAMATIC STRICTURES.

MISS WALSTEIN.

THIS charming actress being now restored to our stage, some previous notice—antecedent to our regular antiques may be expected from us, by our theatrical readers. We shall endeavour to sketch a hasty outline.

Her first appearance was at Liverpool, in the part of Calista, where she soon became a great favourite. She then went to Scotland, and performed with encreasing reputation. This success induced her to visit Dublin. Here her reception was highly favourable—it might be said flattering.—The prepossession of the Irish audience in her favour, whatever her merit, was such as could not have been expected: for in many instances she divided applause with Mrs. Siddons, and successfully opposed the sound, judicious acting of Mrs. Gallindo.—She, however, in the first season of her performance, encountered the severity of one of the ablest, though far from the most liberal dramatic critics, that has arisen since the days of Churchill.—As that gentleman has, by his subsequent apology, repented, or feigned to repent of some of his remarks on the Lady, it might perhaps be rather unfair to revive the subject: for, after all, his criticisms, though generally cruel, and frequently unjust, may not have done Miss Walstein much harm; but, on the contrary, only stimulated her to unthought-of professional exertion.

Miss Walstein's great error appears to have been aiming at too great a diversity of characters, to her attainment of excellence in which, nature has placed insurmountable barriers;—her Nell, (for instance) in the Devil to pay. Great as is her merit in the part, with all her advantages—her singing &c. is not her figure too fine for a proper representative of a cobler's wife?—The whole province of low comedy is beyond her sphere of acting, unless she could lop her stature, and assume that meanness of figure, which is incompatible with the elegance of her person, and commanding contour of feature, which nature having liberally bestowed on her, forms her principal advantage in the higher walks of the drama.

Her genteel comedy is sprightly, vivacious, unaffected. If she is deficient in archness, it is amply supplied by smiles of innocent gaiety, and glances which penetrate the soul. Hence in her Letitia Hardy, and similar characters, the *assumption* of levity is evident, and those finer tints, which at once finish and adorn the picture, steal mellowing on the eye. This is perhaps more the effect of natural disposition than study.—But if the critic therefore withholds his praise from her *art*, the spectator, whose feelings will not permit him to stop and inquire the means by which his heart has been assailed, receives all those finer impressions which endear a chaste scenic representation to the soul of sensibility.

Her tragedy possesses much merit. It strongly partakes of the school of Siddons. Indeed her person bears no trivial resemblance to all the better proportions and advantages in the figure of that great actress—and nature has, *upon the whole*, blessed her with a form, to which few can lay claim.

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be lamented by every lover of dramatic merit, it yet was attended with one event, at which all must rejoice, it was the means of drawing into public notice, the talents of another young Lady, from whose great abilities, now fairly brought into contact with those of Miss Walstein, the public may expect that delightful mental repast, which arises from a collision of rival genius in the arena of fame.

MISS O'NEILL.

IT has, during the progress of the drama to its present state, been the distinguished honor of the Irish stage, to produce native talent, or to rear abilities born in other parts of the empire in to maturity, in the highest order of theatric excellence. Of this Sheridan, Macklin, Mossop, the Barries, Lewis, Clinch, Johnstone, Mrs. Fitzhenry, Mrs. Woffington, Mrs. Jordan;—and last, (though not least)among them,Miss O'Neill, are undeniable instances.

In little more than three years, has this young and astonishing actress mounted from one acclivity of dramatic fame to another, until at last she gained the exalted height of public estimation, on which she at present stands. If we look back on her career, we must confess ourselves equally under the influence of wonder as to the means, and delight as to the effect. Now treading close on the heel of Mrs. Edwin —anon, powerfully reminding the few aged spectators of the electric bursts of anguish, so much adored in Mrs. Barry. This hour performing Juliet in a style which we never saw equalled, and the next supporting the mother of Coriolanus, with a matronic dignity, to which one would imagine her youth and figure would form irremoveable bars of objection.—Playing Oriana, with all that could enchant in woman—then resiguing the part to its original claimant—and assuming the eccentric Bisarre, with equal, almost with superior effect. Nor can this be accounted the period of her exertions. Supporting, of herself, during two seasons, the entire weight of female representation, she was frequently forced into comic characters, and in some of them she shone most resplendent. Beatrice, Belinda, and the widow Brady, with many others, might be mentioned. In short, through every department of the stage, (with the single exception of the vocal,) she has proved herself—*the universal actress.*

Amidst such an accumulation of business, it must naturally be expected that some parts would occur in which equal excellence would not appear. This was the case with Ophelia, and a few other characters; but even there a stand was made, that was at least respectable.

Miss O'Neill evidently possesses mind, talent, discrimination; yet is she less indebted to art and study than most of her profession. Her spontaneous bursts of nature—whether gay or pathetic, are such, as study can never attain, although it may improve; but which Nature alone must bestow.

How long she may continue on our boards, is a fearful question; but she seems destined (if we can argue aught from merit,) at some future period, to wear the laurel so recently resigned by Siddons.

MR. TALBOT.

FEW performers have filled the most opposite walks of the drama with equal propriety.—He certainly puts in a powerful claim to the title of *General Actor.*—Wolsey, and Mirabel: great in both, perhaps not equally so; for in

comedy is his chief excellence. There he "rules supreme." And of every species of comedy which he has attempted, his finished gentlemen are the best. Hence his peculiar excellence, and high fame in Mirabel and Doricourt. We believe he has not played young Bevil on our stage; but the performance of it is a dramatic desideratum. Mrs. Jordan has repeatedly declared "that Talbot is the best young Mirabel she has played against." And several other performers, of the first standing, (both male and female) have borne united testimony to his abilities.—Yet did he perform some of the best of his characters on the London boards without producing any effect, or acquiring the least fame. A failure in London is a precipice, down which, if an actor leap, he is seldom known to regain the heights from whence he departed. Mr. Talbot, however, came back to Dublin, and was a greater favourite than ever. He performed many of his characters against Mr. Holman, and in numerous instances divided the applause of the Theatre with that great actor.—Hence, jealous of their fame on both sides, perpetual jars arose between them. At length some disagreement with Mr. Jones caused Mr. Talbot to withdraw from the Theatre. His loss was severely felt at the time, and till this hour has never been completely filled up. He retired to the management of his own theatres; and now re-visits Dublin only for a few nights.

Light, airy, vivacious—he possesses innumerable advantages for the eccentric line in comedy. A transcript of the late Mr. Lewis almost to imitation. It would naturally be imagined by a judicious spectator on first seeing him, that, like Woodward, and several other great actors, he was confined to comedy alone. This, however, is far from being the case. Look at his Wolsey, Pierre, Dumont, Old Norval, &c. &c. and then deny him tragic merit, if you can.

It is true we must grant, with the author of the Epistles, that he possesses

"A trifling air, a girlish form,
"Ill suited to the tragic storm,"

And that he never can pretend to

"——— rival all that host of
"charms,
"With which *Black Rascius** moves his
"arms."

Yet in strongly marked sarcasm—bitter reproach—and poignant invective, few tragic actors have soared beyond him. There is, it must be acknowledged, a certain unbending harshness in his voice, nor is his declamation wholly free from that measured cadence, which was the source of the *titum! titum! ti!* of the old school. Of this the rhiming tags, to some of his greatest comic characters, afford auricular demonstration.

Mr. Talbot can lay no claim to the advantages of what the actors call a speaking face. Nature has been niggard to him in this respect. Hence we may say of him, with the elder Sheridan,

"When he succeeds, the merit's all his
"own."

He is a sensible judicious actor—his conceptions of character ever just. He knows well how to discriminate between the different shadowings of the passions—and clearly poising his own acting powers in the balance of reason, he is alike certain of the point where he can make an effectual stand against all opposition.

Thus furnished, Mr. Talbot may be considered an acquisition to any theatre; so that the high celebrity

* The elder Kemble.

which he has gained in Dublin, has not been the result of artifice on his part, or prejudice on that of the public; but has solely arisen from his individual merit as an actor.

THEATRICAL RETROSPECT.

THERE is no article in a Monthly Miscellany, like ours, which is perused with more avidity than the dramatic. None is more difficult to conduct with fairness, and yet keep alive its spirit. This principally arises from the abuses which have been practised in it, time immemorial. Critical lucubrations, whether diurnal, hebdomanal or mensal, have been so prostituted, that little remains to them either of credit or originality. The Editors and Proprietors of some prints, to gain the petty bribe of free admission to the Theatre for themselves and friends, have bedaubed the manager, and puffed the performances, until they have completely destroyed all public confidence in their reports.—Others, for the mean traffic of a bottle, or even a tankard, have bartered their praises of one actor and their censures of another, to the utter extinction of truth, and creation of nausea on one hand and indignation on the other. And, finally, some have embarked in the nefarious practice of defamation, and, to sell their publications, or extort money from individuals, have stung beauty to the soul, blasted merit in the bud, and cankered reputation in its brightest blossom. They have hunted down performers like animals of the chace, daggered managers with all the remorselessness of literary assassins, and "unfolded tales" which never had existence, but in the infernal archives of their own invention.—Without pointing at individuals, we mention these practices to mark them with our abhorrence, and to give a warning hint to that part of the public, whose appetite for slander is their ruling literary passion, that in the dramatic reports of the Monthly Museum, they will experience utter disappointment. Like the author of the Epistles, we say, "We drain no midnight bowls with players." But Heaven forefend, if we use no brush to bedaub them with flattery, that we should by day carry a concealed dagger to wound their peace as individuals, their merits as performers, or their characters as men. We will ever rejoice to give them their due meed of praise; we will be impartial; on some occasions, where we can, merciful; but we must be just.—With regard to managers, we entreat the public to place confidence in us for one assertion.—*There is not, nor shall there ever be, the least understanding,* BY WAY OF INFLUENCE, *between the manager of the Theatre, and the Conductors of the Monthly Museum.* Yet will we not be fearful to praise the arrangements of the Theatre when they merit our approval; or to condemn and expose any practice which militates against dramatic justice, is subversive of the dignity and morality of the stage—or destructive of that entertainment which the public have a right to expect in a well regulated Theatre.

On this ground then we take our stand. When we abandon it, be public infamy, public neglect our punishment. While we main-

tain it, we are secure of public approval—perhaps public support.

Into the subject of managerial delinquency prior to the contemplation of this publication, we do not assume any right to enter, as the advocates of either side of the question. But we must confess, that, during the short part of the present season which has elapsed, there evidently appears a desire to please, and efforts toward the accomplishment of that desire.—The restoration of Talbot and Miss Walstein—the introduction of Cooke as a vocal performer—the re-engagement of the elder Kemble—and all this during the early part of the season, before Christmas, are so many fair points of promise. Whether these arrangements proceeded from the deputy-manager Mr. Rock, or from Mr. Jones himself, we know not; but they alike do credit to one or both of them. We feel the laudable pride of interest in our native drama reklndle anew, when we behold two such actresses as Miss O'Neill and Miss Walstein, taking the lead on the Irish stage. Do we assert too much when we observe that, is doubtful, whether either Drury-lane or Covent-garden, have at this instant two better—perhaps we might say *two equal?*

1813, Oct. 7.—The house opened with *All in the Wrong*, and *the Devil to Pay.*

Miss O'Neill's Belinda was pure unadulterated comedy.——Every movement was grace, every accent nature; these joined to a lovely fascinating form, gave that indelible impression, which in point of dramatic effect must be pronounced irresistible.

Miss Walstein, in the paroxism of her jealousy, should remember the rank of Lady Restless. There was a Tartar fury about her acting which ill-accorded with the character. The applauses which followed this violence of acting were given to Miss Walstein—not to Lady Restless. Would but our fair-one study a little discrimination, she certainly possesses powers to costitute her a first-rate actress.

Mr. C. Kemble's Beverly was wanting. Mr. Connor did all he could with the character. He was respectable. But it was impossible for him to supply the deficiency.—It would have been much better for Mr. Farren being out of Sir John, to have played the part.

The acting merit, and the vocal additions in Miss Walstein's Nell, are entitled to every praise; but nothing can sink her figure to the level of the character.

Our old friend Williams has long stood unrivalled in Jobson.—But does he really think that it can raise him in critical estimation, so remorselessly to stick his awl up to the handle into the poor conjuror?

Oct. 8.—*Wives as they Were—Maids as they Are.—The Citizen.*

Lady Priory and Miss Dorilant, by Walstein and O'Neill. Miss Walstein did all that could be done with Lady Priory. But in point of character Miss Dorilant has so much the advantage, that no parallel ought to be drawn between them. We highly approve a remark in one of the papers.—"One "started in the course a mile be-"fore the other. Hence it would "be very unfair to decide the "merits of the race at the win-"ning post."

In the entertainment Miss O'Neill performed Maria with much spirit and elegance. But the effect was more than half destroyed by the blunders and inattention of the minor characters.—Does Mr. Rock attend the rehearsals? or were there any of this farce?

Oct. 9.—*The Haunted Tower.—Is he a Prince?*

Mr. and Mrs. Cooke made their appearance in Lord William and Lady Eleanor. Their merits are well known to our readers. Mr. Cooke is much improved in deportment, of course he has gained confidence. But he does not draw the houses which were expected.

Oct. 11.—*The Inconstant.—The Quaker.*

The re-appearance of Talbot attracted a most respectable (and considering the season) numerous attendance. Time—that woeful destroyer of all things—has yet left his figure unimpaired; but seems to have confined all its vengeance to his features, and his voice. He looks at least fifteen years older than when we saw him last, and he has got an old man's crack in his voice which impedes the comic rapidity for which he was once so remarkable.—Yet was the science of the actor greatly apparent. His agile movements threw life all around him, and some of the speeches still proclaimed him—the first Mirabel.—Yet must we except the whole of the 5th act—the scene with the bravoes, &c. This is decidedly Mr. C. Kemble's—and we are compelled to own Talbot must bow before him.—The scene of beating the father is better managed by Talbot. By the bye, we wish *(for the morality of the stage)* that this incident were omitted. We know not a more repulsive shameless scene on the boards than this. A man beating his father! and in sport! It was a disgrace to Farquhar. But the licence of his days permitted it. And the good sense of ours ought to banish it. A very slight alteration would expunge it from the comedy.

Oct. 12.—*Siege of Belgrade.—Midnight Hour.*

In the after-piece, the Marquis and Flora deserve some mention. Mr. Farren was more sprightly, less sententious than many we have seen. We stop not to enquire whether this was Mrs. Inchbald's design in drawing the Marquis; but it certainly assisted the representation. Mrs. Stewart on the other hand, if not a Mrs. Edwin in Flora, yet supported the part with a vivacity sufficient for a chambermaid.

Oct. 13.—*Belle's Stratagem.—Lyar.*

It is with an actor as with a beauty.

"When time advances, and when lovers
"fail,
"She then shines forth, solicitous to blest,
"In all the *glaring impotence of dress.*"

So sung Goldsmith of beauty in its wane. Mr. Talbot is at a period of life, which may be pronounced the acclivity of an actor's merit. Does he already fear to shape his course downward, and therefore array himself in his blue and silver? The dress of Doricourt gave us the idea of a French *Joüeur* rather than an English young man of fashion.

His Doricourt has been immortalized by the Author of the Epistles.—We have little to observe on it, except to enter an objection to a certain pompous inflation in his delivery, which is certainly not comedy, or if it be that species of tragedy called serious speaking, is certainly of the very old school.

His surprise, emotion, and at last disgust, in the scene where Miss Hardy assumes the ideot were ably executed; but his own counterfeit madness in the fifth act, was tame to insipidity in some places—and in others violence without effect.—How different in this scene was the Doricourt of Lewis!

Fullam's Hardy was one tissue of grimace and vulgarity.—Mr. Hardy is a man of wealth, and whatever his oddity, far removed

from those loose low manners with which this performer represents him.

The Lyar is now one of Talbot's best performances—the rapidity of his tones—and the sprightliness of his deportment, all unite to stamp peculiar merit on the part. We look around in vain for any actor who could play it against him.

Oct. 14.—*The Cabinet.—Modern Antiques.*
Oct. 15.—*The Exile.—High Life below Stairs.*

With some traits of very fine acting in the part of Daran, we were yet very much disgusted with the want of recollection. It is unpardonable in an actor to come on the stage imperfect in his character, and place his sole reliance on the prompter. It is true the house was very thin, and that might dispirit him. But could it make him forget his part? Nevertheless we should like to see Talbot again in Daran, when thoroughly mellow in the character.

His Lord Duke in the farce was a fine performance. Some of his stage-jokes were strikingly appropriate and purely original.—We much liked his asking Mrs. Kitty, while he was cutting up the fowl, if "he should help her to a *walker* or a *flyer?*"

Miss Walstein's Mrs. Kitty was at once sprightly and spirited; but why leave the table, and all the company (dropping the character at once!!!) and come to the foot of the lamps to sing the song?—This is leaping over all decorum with a single bound.—And why that crimson velvet ridicule? It would have been almost too splendid for the Widow Belmour. Whatever the situation of private life in which an actress moves, if she personates a servant—*she ought to dress like one.*

Oct. 16.—*The Honey Moon.—The Critic.*

The Duke d'Aranza by Talbot. We never beheld finer acting than the first scene.—But the other part (though unobjectionable) did not come up to what we expected from him. He wanted the firmness and tenderness (two hard ingredients to amalgamate in the dramatic crucible) which were the great features of Holman's Duke. Miss O'Neill's Juliana was critically just, yet highly pleasing.—It strongly reminded us of Lord Shaftsbury's criterion of good writing.—"A nobleman might read it "and be delighted—a plough-boy "and understand it."—Apply this remark to the drama, and it gives you the precise idea of her Juliana.

Talbot's Puff deserved its due degree of praise; but we are no friends to that species of writing, which, like the Critic, burlesques some of our best tragedies.—The Manager who, in our opinion, consulted his true interest, would banish all such pieces the stage. It is to their frequent representation in London, that they owe the almost entire exclusion of tragedy from the stage. Many of our readers will perhaps doubt the veracity of our remark; but the files of the theatres would prove it. In Dublin we perform more than twice the number of tragedies, which they do in London at both houses.

Oct. 18.—*The Inconstant.—The Three and the Deuce.*

To our former remarks on this play we have to subjoin one observation. When young Mirable, quizzing his father, kneels for his blessing, the old man, perceives his drift, and *hastily* d——ns him for his impudence. Old Mirabel is too fond a father *deliberately* to curse his own offspring. Mr. Fullam, in his absurd gaggery, to set the galleries laughing, waves his hands over him, with as much assumed solemnity as ever old Isaac spread his over Jacob—and then,

twisting his features into a grin, utters the formal curse "d——n you, you dog!"—Is this nature, propriety?—Is it acting?—The author was certainly condemnable for introducing such a profane sentence—but the performer adds glaring absurdity to it by such a mode of delivery.

Oct. 19.—*The Deserted Daughter.—Sleep Walker.*

Joanna, Cheveril and Mordaunt may put in their legitimate claims for public approval.

The incidents of this farce (as was observed on a far different occasion) resemble so many pegs, placed for no other purpose but to hang the imitations upon: an itinerant actor walks in his sleep, and imitates the different performers.—We perfectly coincide with a remark in one of the papers.—"To make this piece popular, the imitations should be of Irish actors."—We would add the well-known "stars" who have visited us. Mr. Talbot was reduced to the necessity of repeatedly giving himself in Macbeth, Young Mirabel, &c. which with Kemble (one of the best imitations of that great actor) and the late Mr. Cooke, made up the whole of this motley dramatic mixture. We know not whether Talbot is equal to the undertaking (and if not, he should not have undertaken the character); but would it not have been better to have introduced imitations of Fullam, the Farrens, Johnson, Sloman, Younger, Foote, &c. &c.? These would have been perfectly understood—and might have rendered the farce popular.

Oct. 20.—*Much ado about Nothing.—Sleep Walker.*

Benedict, (Mr. Talbot) a tolerable correct (though not servile) imitation of Mr. Lewis—with an unaccountable dash of the Old School monotony.

Beatrice, (Miss O'Neill)—all that is lovely in a woman, and elegant and accomplished in an actress.

Oct. 21.—*Laugh when you can.—Sleep Walker.*

Oct. 22.—*Every one has his Fault.—Inkle and Yarico.*

The grand objects which in this performance arrested attention, were Lady Eleanor Irwin and her son, (Miss O'Neill and Miss Rock.) If Mrs. Pope's Lady Eleanor, from her consummate skill and exquisite feeling, towered in some points above our present representative of the character; the personification, the pathos, the spontaneous bursts of agony are O'Neill's.—Like Mrs. Crawford, she did most when least expected. With regard to Miss Rock, we could have wished Mrs. Inchbald herself to have been spectatress of the scene; and we think she must have acknowledged, from the artless tones of this child, and those feelings which (to borrow a botanical phraze,) may be termed purely indiginous, Miss Rock is the best Edward that has yet appeared.

Oct. 23.—*The Way to keep Him.—High Life below Stairs.*

Mr. W. Farren's Sir Bashful Constant.—Pure, native comedy—humour devoid of grimace, and eccentricity without the least sprinkling of the absurd.—It was thus that King gained the heights of comic celebrity. It is pleasing to behold so very young a man, disclaiming all that gaggery, contortion, wriggling and buffoonery, which are the principal ingredients in a modern comedian, and copying nature, while he studies his author.

Oct. 23. *The Way to Keep Him, High Life below Stairs.*—25. *School for Scandal, Lyar.*—26. *A Concert, Devil to Pay.*—27. *Way to Keep Him, Sleep Walker*—28. *All in the Wrong, Tale of Mystery*—29. *Concert,* (Mrs. Ashe's Benefit,) *Citizen*—30. *Suspicious Husband,* (Talbot's Benefit,) *Young Hussar.*

Original Poetry.

COMPARISONS.

Oh yes! 'tis sweet when Summer suns
Illume the face of this fair scene;
More bright yon chrystal streamlet runs,
And smiles yon hill in livelier green:
Yet faint the charm those scenes impart,
Not long can they the soul beguile,
When those bright rays assail the heart,
That beam from beauty's *living* smile.

Say, through all natures boundless maze
Is aught more lovely to the view,
Than where yon radient sky displays
Its beamy robes of brightest blue?
Oh! all that charms the wondering sight
In yon clear arch of cloudless skies,
Yields to a power more sweet——more bright——
The magic of those azure eyes.

Is aught on earth so passing fair
As yonder lovely lily flower?
What rival can with it compare
In garden-walk, or summer bower?
Oh! than the lilly's snow white charms
In spring tides earliest livery drest,
More white those smoothly polish'd arms,
More fair, more pure, that gentle breast.

See yonder rose's brilliant bloom,
The child of summer and the pride,
Through noon's warm beam, and evening's gloom
Distilling fragrance far and wide.
How far beyond that fragrant rose,
What thought conceive, what tongue can speak,
The bloom of innocence that glows
Unconscious on that blushing cheek?

And now when setting sun's illume
The last grey hours of parting day;
What rays of living glory bloom
Along the bright ethereal way?
But see those beauteous ringlets shade,
In mazy curls that forehead fair,
And own a lovelier tinge display'd
In those bright locks of golden hair.

At eve, when zephyr's balmy power
Diffuses health and rapture round,
Entranc'd we hail the charming hour,
And tread on joy's enchanted ground!
But oh! when goodness prompts the smile,
When peace and love the feelings melt,
Each rural sound's unheard the while,
And zephyr passes by unfelt.

The tender look, the feeling heart—
One word of soft resistless power,
More joy, more pure delight impart
Than Nature's pomp in sky or flower.
For sure in fancy's loftiest flight,
Whate'er thro' Nature's realms we see,
To hold the soul in fix'd delight,
Must think, and speak, and look like thee.

SAUNTER.

LINES

To the Memory of the late Mr. Sol. Sproule.

"WHY, unavailing, drops the tear
On this green turf to virtue dear?
Why on the urn reclines thy head?
Beneath thee sleeps the sainted dead!"
"O holy Hermit seek not why,
Or take thine answer from my sigh;
For ev'ry thought which grac'd the soul,
Was tenant in the breast of SPROULE;
And all these sacred deeds which prove
Our union with our Maker's love,
Evinc'd his Faith in Hope's career
To cross the Earth, and seek the sphere,
On high; where all the babes of light,
Entrob'd in folds æthereal bright,
Join, in the choral voice of praise,
The Hallelujah strain to raise.
His children, now, no more rejoice,
To catch the cadence of his voice;
Nor does his tender partner hear,
The accents of affection dear.
Ah no! the widow'd spouse must mourn
That absence, which leads no return;
And all she sees but serve to show
The emblems of reflected woe.
And Ah! that hand, so us'd to lead
The youth on honor's course to tread;
To mark aright the scriptur'd way
Where female innocence might play,
Tho' sway'd by energy of mind,
Has dropp'd for ever, and recln'd.
Ye helpless virgins now bewail
The friend of virtue in the vale;
Ye swains afford a tear to lave
The with'ring grass which roofs his grave;
And here mine eyes o'ercharg'd shall mourn;
And swell the moss that twines his urn."—
"Nay, cease my Son," the Hermit cried,
"All grief is interested pride;
Tho' the heart speak thro' weeping eye,
Yet when the pearly fount is dry;
This woe will but remember'd be,
And such is rank impiety.
For why has Virtue flown from Heav'n?
Or why is thought to mortals giv'n?
Th' example plac'd; a copy true;
As he has done, so practice you."

THE SOLILOQUY.

We may talk of the darts and the arrows of Cupid,
And speculate where all his great ordnance lies;
But the feeble, the strong, and the wise and the stupid,
Find these magazin'd in a charmer's bright eyes.
There's nought else but war, from the Earth to the Heaven,
From Nap. Bounaparte to thunderer Jove;
'Midst Frenchmen and Germans lead bullets are driven,
On Olympus and round it fly bullets of Love.
Then Cupid I'll list as thy soldier this minute,
So print my hands palm with the point of thy dart;
And if I succeed not, why all that there's in it,
The victim remains, but in pledge lies his heart.
A recruit e're attested is granted a shilling,
All one as to say, you're a man for the king;
But in Love's campaign, tho' the maiden be willing,
E're talk of surrender more shillings must ring.
To me give the maid that has virtue a portion,
And leave other dowries to sordider minds;
So Phœbus whilst glowing, in Eastern [illegible],
Shall smile on the spot where a blessing reclines.

Lines Written in Retirement.

What's sweet in the world! O surely the name,
Of virtue when clad in the buckler of fame,
Then echoes rise quickly awaken and tell,
Our WELLINGTON's name to the brake and the dell.
But Fame thro' her trumpet has blown wide the sound,
And nations have listen'd and worship'd around;
And as in her course earth revolves round the Sun,
Other worlds rejoice at what ARTHUR has done.
The champion of rights and of liberty bears,
Thro' the red path of war, all his countrymen's pray'rs;
And in the loud battle when foemen assail,
The pray'rs of the patriot sweetly avail.
As the Macedon youth o'er the Granicus tow'd,
Found rest on the shore when the billows were crow'd.
So Wellington when this rude tempest is past,
Thine own native Erin gives shelter at last.
O Time, ever eating, roll quick as thou wilt,
What recompence bear you, for blood war has spilt;
'Tis woeful until to our Erin you give
The essence of heroes, whose laurels shall live.
So Time with thy scythe newly whetted now roll,
Thy wrath crushing vice at equater or pole.
Furl close the red standard, let enmity cease,
And wrap Europe's sons in the garment of Peace.

AN ANACREONTIC ODE,

In imitation of Thomas Moore, Esq.

WHILST the fiery god of day,
Pierces Tellus with his ray;
Whilst the silver moon-beams sleep,
On the surface of the deep;
Whilst the Summer's wholsome dew,
Rises on the mountains blue;
Whilst the bleat and loudning low,
Echo thro' the mead and mow.
Rosy Bacchus' hand shall twine,
My hours in chaplets of the vine.
What is time? a pigmy span,
Less than time the life of man.
Where have bliss and joy their birth?
Where is comfort? not on Earth.
Comfort beaming from the sky,
Still is sought for, never nigh.
Then since nought, save wailing woe,
Echo's thro' this vale below.
Let us drive the fiend away;
Making life an holiday.
And when Bacchanalian fire,
Twines a thyrsis for our choir,
We'll praise in song of notes divine,
The joys of love the joys of wine. N.

LINES TO A TEAR.

BACK to thy source, thou heart-deserting tear!
Show not thy crystal form to prying eyes;
Hide thee from her I love, if she come near:
She bade thee flow who does thy source despise!
Yet stay, thou trembling gem!—should she approach,
Then launch thy lustre's lightning in her heart;
Pierce her relentless soul with thy reproach,
And let her feel what 'tis with scorn to smart.

Monthly Register.

[The affairs of Europe seem now drawing to a crisis more awful and important in the fate of the civilized world, than any æra which has teemed with fate since the death of Alexander. The present Continental Intelligence is so uncertain in the minor points—big with expectation on one hand—and doubtful, though far from expecting, reverse on the other, that we are, upon mature deliberation, induced to postpone our Narrative of the Affairs of Europe, until next Number. When the "welfare of millions trembles in the balance," (to use Mr. Roscoe's elegant metaphor) we may conjecture—we must hope——but dare we record? This being an article of such difficulty in execution, and importance in effect, we are fearful of lightly committing ourselves; and respectfully hoping that what we state will be received as sufficient apology, rest content with promising every exertion in our power to produce it, digested according to our original Plan, in the next Number. We have, however, given a MAP of the SEAT of WAR in the NORTH of EUROPE, on which our Readers can make their own observations; and which, at the end of the year, the Binder can place against the promised Article.]

LONDON.

The entrance of the Marquis of Wellington into the French territories has been considered as the first step towards an invasion of France. The advantage of the position which the result of the battle of the 7th has given to our army, is that it enables Lord Wellington to remain on the frontier, which had he not possessed La Rhune, and the road lying on the French side of the Biddassoa, would have been next to impossible, as the roads within the Spanish territories, which connected the right and left wing of the British position, are impassable at an advanced period of the year. Consequently the position which he held previous to the 7th, would have been rendered untenable. The British army now has its right at Zugamamardi, from thence it extends by La Rhune to the Montague Verte, and from thence to the sea, holding what the French Government have invariably considered the strongest line of the Pyrenees, and what Cardinal Mazarine is much praised for having induced the Spaniards to abandon to France. All the flying divisions British and Spanish, have been re-ordered to join Lord Wellington, and it was estimated that his Lordship's army, when thus reinforced, will amount to 160,000 infantry, and 18,000 cavalry.

The number of prisoners of war which have been progressively received into the British service, since the commencement of hostilities, is very considerable; but that number of late has been unusually augmented. The mode hitherto adopted has been invariably to refuse natives of France; to accept all Germans of whatever description, and to appropriate them to the Legion and Brunswick corps. Italians have been attached to the foreign regiments of Rolle, Dillon, the Corsican Rangers, &c. &c. Dutchmen have been posted in small numbers to the battalions of the 60th; but the Dutch prisoners at present in Scotland have manifested an inclination to enter into our service in a manner hitherto unknown during the war.

Gen. Sir George Hewitt was introduced to the Prince Regent on the 7th, by Lord Viscount Sidmouth, upon his being appointed to the command of the forces in Ireland, in the room of General Sir John Hope.

After much deliberation Government has signified its decision not to permit the French brandies (now in bond) to be used for home consumption on the importers paying the usual duties. They must, therefore, be exported as originally intended.

DUBLIN.

On Saturday, Oct. 23d, there was a meeting of the Roman Catholic Board, when the following Petition to Parliament was presented, and unanimously adopted:—

WE, the ROMAN CATHOLIC PEOPLE of IRELAND, again approach the Legislature with a statement of the grievances under which we labour, and of which we most respectfully, but at the same time most firmly solicit the effectual redress.—Our wrongs are so notorious and so numerous, that their minute detail is quite unnecessary, and would indeed be impossible were it deemed expedient. Ages of persecution on the one hand, and of patience on the other, sufficiently attest our sufferings and our submission. Privations have been answered only by Petition—indignities by remonstrances—injuries by forgiveness. It has been a misfortune to have suffered for the sake of our Religion, but it has also been a pride to have borne the best testimony to the purity of our doctrine by the meekness of our endurance.

We have sustained the power which spurned us—we have nerved the arm which smote us—we have lavished our strength, our talent, and our treasures, and buoyed on the prodigal effusion of our young blood, the triumphant Ark of British Liberty.

We approach then with confidence an enlightened Legislature; in the name of Nature, we ask our rights as Men. In the name of the Constitution we ask our privileges as subjects. In the name of God, we ask the sacred protection of unpersecuted piety as Christians.

Are Securities required of us? we offer them—the best securities a throne can have—the affections of a People. We offer faith that was never violated—Hearts that never were corrupted——Valour that never crouched; every hour of peril has proved our Allegiance, and every Field of Europe exhibits its example.

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BIRTHS.

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DUBLIN.

On Saturday, Oct. 23d, there was a meeting of the Roman Catholic Board, when the following Petition to Parliament was presented, and unanimously adopted:—

WE, the ROMAN CATHOLIC PEOPLE of IRELAND, again approach the Legislature with a statement of the grievances under which we labour, and of which we most respectfully, but at the same time most firmly solicit the effectual redress.—Our wrongs are so notorious and so numerous, that their minute detail is quite unnecessary, and would indeed be impossible were it deemed expedient. Ages of persecution on the one hand, and of patience on the other, sufficiently attest our sufferings and our submission. Privations have been answered only by Petition—indignities by remonstrances—injuries by forgiveness. It has been a misfortune to have suffered for the sake of our Religion, but it has also been a pride to have borne the best testimony to the purity of our doctrine by the meekness of our endurance.

We have sustained the power which spurned us—we have nerved the arm which smote us—we have lavished our strength, our talent, and our treasures, and buoyed on the prodigal effusion of our young blood, the triumphant Ark of British Liberty.

We approach then with confidence an enlightened Legislature; in the name of Nature, we ask our rights as Men. In the name of the Constitution we ask our privileges as subjects. In the name of God, we ask the sacred protection of unpersecuted piety as Christians.

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TO CORRESPONDENTS.

OUR valuable Correspondent "JACK ERUDITE" (whose favors we consider as a kind of *first-fruits*) will, we hope, pardon us for altering the *personal* pronoun in his excellent Theatrical Remarks. Like other tyrants, or usurpers, or legitimate sovereigns, (or call us what you please) we wish for the sake of consistency to keep the designating plural *we* to ourselves. "J. ERUDITE" will perceive that *we* have anticipated him in Remarks on Mr. Talbot, &c. but we shall be happy to receive his—and shall readily find a corner for them.—His Poetry in our next.

"Local Abuses" shall also then appear.

We war not with any religious opinion—of course the Essay on "*Intolerance*" (in which the Writer has given a pretty sample of what he condemns) cannot be admitted.

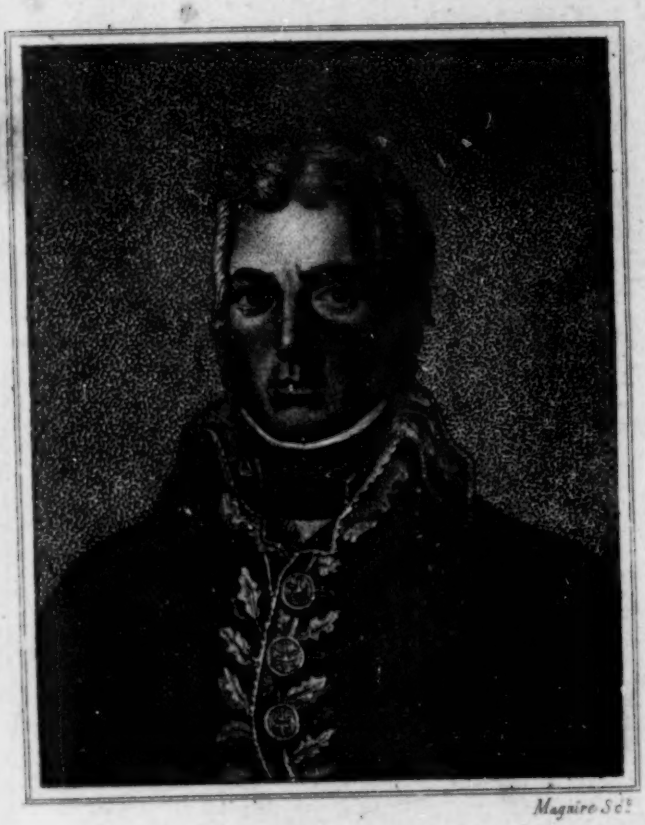
The Poetry of "*A Young Man*" is some of it (if our recollection fail us not) *very old*.—We are certain the whole is very lame.

"A Dunleary Fisherman," is under consideration.

We have to remind more than one of our friends of their promise of articles on the valuable subject of Chemistry. We respectfully hope that they will not be tardy in redeeming their pledges.

It must be naturally imagined, that an infant Publication, cannot abound with "Notices to Correspondents." Indeed we think it circumstance of happy omen that we have so many. Such Ladies or Gentlemen, as may be inclined hereafter to favor us, are requested to direct their communications *(post paid)* to the Printers, No. 9, Bedford-row.

1 JY 59



Maguire Sc.

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BAY
of
BISCAY
Gabaret
Roquefort
Valence
Tartas
Auch
Bayonne
Pau
High Pyrenees
Tarbes
Lourde
St. Bertrand
Biscay Mts
Durango
Rialp
Salvatierra
Vitoria
Pamplona
ARAGON
Sangüesa
Verdun
NAVARRE
Jaca
Un Castillo
Loare
Ayarbe
Balbastro
Huesca
Esera
Almudevar
Tarazona
SPAIN
Present Seat of War in the
PENINSULA.
Engrav'd for the Dublin Monthly Museum

St. Pons
Beziers
Canal
Narbonne
Tolouse
C E
Garonne R.
Foix
Lower
Ville Franche
Perpignan
Pyrenees
Collioure
Campredon
Rosas
Bordu
Urgel
Gerona
Ripoll
Momegastre
Palamos
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Manresa
Barcelona